

**HISTORY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT
IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS**

by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Today, perhaps more than in any past generation the youth of America is faced with confusing problems, choices, and decisions on which he needs or should have assistance if satisfactory solutions are to be reached. The innumerable complexities of modern life have increased the needs of youth for assistance or guidance in reaching his proper status in life. The aid of the home, the school, the community, public institutions and agencies of the federal government have been enlisted into the organization of programs meeting this need.¹

For many generations the schools suppressed any recognition of the individual in the processes of education.

1. Homer P. Rainey, "The Care and Education of American Youth", Educational Record, XVII (July, 1936), 451-462.

Committee on Youth Problems, "How Communities Can Help", Bulletin, no. 18, I (1936), 1-4.

As Nicholas Murray Butler wrote:

"From the fourteenth century to the nineteenth, the demand of individualism for representation in the schools has been heard, now earnest and reasonable, now passionate and incoherent. Politics and religion so far overshadowed education in importance that it was a long time before there was any widespread recognition of the close relation, in which education stood to them.¹

The public schools felt no responsibility for the welfare, happiness, success or failure of its students until well toward the end of the nineteenth century.² During the last half of that century leading American educators were strongly influenced by the child study movement which was an outcome of the early efforts of Froebel, Herbart, Pestalozzi, and Rousseau. These Europeans had attempted to "humanize" the schools and had "projected individualism into contemporary educational theory."³ Herbart's emphasis on the individual is shown in Cubberley's interpretation of his statement of the purpose of education:

"The purpose of education....was to prepare men to live properly in organized society, and hence the aim in education was not conventional

1. N. M. Butler, "Status of Education at the Close of the Century", proceedings of the National Education Association, 1900.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1919), 356-357.

3. N. M. Butler, op. cit., p. 191.

fitness, natural development, mere knowledge, not personal mental power, but personal character and social morality."¹

In the following quotation Rousseau's emphasis on the importance of the individual in education is indicated:

"He among us who knows best how to bear the good and evil fortunes of this life, is, in my opinion, the best educated: whence it follows that true education consists less in precept than in practice."²

Pestalozzi also recognized the importance of the individual in the educational process and indicated the part man should play in relation to it as is shown in the following quotation:

"Whatever, therefore, man may attempt to do by his tuition, he can do no more than assist in the effort which the child makes for his own development. To do this so that the impressions made upon him may always be commensurate to the growth and character of the faculties already unfolded, and at the same time, in harmony with them, is the great secret of education."³

Thus in the latter half of the nineteenth century began a new movement to emphasize the development of the

1. E. P. Cubberley, The History of Education, (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1920), p. 451.

2. J. J. Rousseau as reported by T. J. Morgan, Educational Mosaics, (Boston: Silver, Rogers and Company, 1887), p. 206.

3. Paul Monroe, Textbook in the History of Education, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1905), p. 611.

individual which was to have a leading place in the history of modern education. It was many years before the theory of individualism found its place in the guidance program of our high schools, but as Herbert Spencer once wrote: "Like political constitutions, educational systems are not made, but grow;...."¹

The innumerable scientific investigations and studies made of children in Europe as well as in the United States towards the end of the nineteenth century brought startling information which resulted in many changes in educational concepts. It was found that the child did not pass through four sharply defined stages as Rousseau believed.² Neither was it found that the child changed overnight into an adult. Rather he grew to adulthood through a period of rapid development called adolescence. The movement for applying this newly discovered material to the field of education was led by G. Stanley Hall, who later became famous for his study, Adolescence.³

A wealth of puzzling questions and problems heretofore unrevealed were brought to the attention of those interested in the problems of youth when attempts were made to make use of this recently discovered material. Why did

1. Herbert Spencer as reported by T. J. Morgan, op. cit., p. 214.

2. Paul Monroe, op. cit., pp. 560-565.

3. Alexander Inglis, Principles of Secondary Education, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918) pp. 56-58.

so many boys and girls drop out of school? Why was juvenile delinquency on the increase? Who was responsible? Why did so many young people become "job hoboes?" What could be done about these problems and who should be responsible?¹ Out of attempts by the high school people to meet these problems has gradually grown the guidance movement.

The Problem

The purpose of this thesis is to trace the development of the guidance movement in the public high schools from the last half of the nineteenth century to the present time. It will attempt to show the steps in the growth of the guidance program. The changes in the emphasis and concept of guidance and their effects on the subsequent development of the movement will be indicated.

1. Richard R. Brown, "The NYA and the Youth Problem", Occupations XIV (1936), pp. 776-780.

Homer P. Rainey, "The Care and Education of American Youth", Educational Record, XVII (July 1936) pp. 451-462.

L. D. Coffman, "The Exploitation of Youth", Educational Record, XVII (May 1936) pp. 95-105.

Robert I. Rees, "Today's Challenge to Personnel Work", Occupations, XIV (May 1936) pp. 709-716.

Homer P. Rainey, "Meeting the Needs of American Youth", Occupations, XIV (May 1936) pp. 717-722.

D. L. Harley, "Finding Jobs", United States Office of Education, Bulletin 18, V, (1936).

The period from approximately the middle of the nineteenth century to the present time will be treated in two general parts. The first part, 1850-1890, will give a brief historical background to introduce the beginnings of guidance in public high schools up to 1890. The second part covers the period 1890-1939. Since this period, 1890-1939, includes such a tremendous amount of material it will be divided into decades, the last section, 1930-1939 making an incomplete decade of only nine years. The problem as a whole will be treated under the following headings.

1. Aims
2. Methods of Procedure
3. Results and Tendencies

It is not the purpose of the writer to explain in detail any of the related developments such as those concerned with child study, tests and measurements, and mental hygiene or with moral, vocational, civic, health and leisure time guidance except in so far as they may be found to be pertinent to the growth of the guidance movement as a whole.

CHAPTER II
ORIGINS FROM WHICH THE GUIDANCE MOVEMENT
DEVELOPED, 1850-1890

In the period from 1850-1890 there was no clearly defined guidance movement in the public high schools in the modern sense of the word. Yet the origins which gave impetus to the rapid development of the movement in the twentieth century are essentially found therein. It was a period of transition, and of dynamic effort on the part of a few leaders in the field of public education to provide an ideal system of education to fit the requirements of the students of that time.

In 1843 Horace Mann spent several months in Europe visiting schools. His description and reports on what he saw in Europe became very helpful in "improving instruction by the adoption of a better classification of pupils...."¹

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919) p. 279.

Henry Barnard had visited the schools of various European countries during the late 1830's and in 1834 published National Education in Europe, describing "The best of European organization and practices", which he was interested "in introducing into our state school systems".¹

In the 1890's many Americans studied at Jena and returned with the ideas and practices of Herbart as taught by William Rein, a student of Ziller.² The concept of education derived from Herbart included "emphasis on the moral aim in instruction; a new and truer educational psychology; and a better organization of the technique of classroom instruction".³ Charles De Garmo, Charles A. McMurry, and Frank McMurry who had studied under Rein at Jena popularized these ideas in the United States.⁴

All of these American educators sought the best methods, practices, and ideas in European education in order that they might establish an ideal system of public education in the United States. Their influence is revealed in the attempts of the guidance movement in this period 1850-1890.

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1. Ibid., p. 276.
 2. Ibid., p. 316.
 3. Ibid., p. 317.
 4. Ibid., p. 316.

Aims

There were two aims found in this period upon which the guidance activities in high schools were based.

1. The first aim was the development of the moral character of the students. This was the concept of guidance which was implied in Froebel's theories. That he strongly emphasized morality and character development is indicated in the following:

"To give firmness to the will, to quicken it, and to make it pure, strong and enduring, in a life of pure humanity, is the chief concern, the main object in the guidance of the boy in instruction and the school."¹

The ideas of Herbart included a similar emphasis on moral education. He believed that the whole aim of education should be "morality". By morality, he meant "good character or disposition and social adjustment."²

These ideas of morality and social adjustment were directly incorporated into the schools as one aim of the guidance activities in this period. Criticising the common school curriculum for its lack of instruction in the development of morality Henry Barnard wrote:

1. Friedrich Froebel as reported by Frederick Eby and Chas. F. Arrowood in The Development of Modern Education in Theory, Organization and Practice, (New York: Prentice Hall, 1934), p. 761.

2. Ibid., p. 761.

"The course of instruction....will be radically defective, unless it embraces the harmonious development of the whole nature of the child—the physical, intellectual, and the moral powers;...."¹

The Hon. D. L. Kiehle, State Superintendent of Minnesota, in 1890, wrote the following in regard to the school's responsibility for the moral education of its students.

"The only wise policy for the state to pursue is to include in the public school curriculum whatever belongs to intelligence and morals and to leave to the family whatever belongs distinctly to religious instruction."²

Another example indicating that moral education was a very important part of the school program is given in Paul Monroe's Brief Course in the History of Education. Monroe wrote that it was the problem of the teacher in the last half of the nineteenth century "to develop character in the child out of the material and processes furnished by the school."³ This part of the teacher's duty was in accordance with the laws requiring moral instruction by most of the states. The California school code may be used

1. Henry Barnard on Education, edited by John S. Brubacher, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1931), p. 155.

2. D. L. Kiehle, "Religious and Moral Training", Report of the Commissioner of Education, II (1890-1981), p. 1052.

3. Paul Monroe, Brief Course in the History of Education, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1908), p. 409.

as an example of this requirement:

"Instruction in morals and manners shall be given in all grades and classes through the entire school course;"¹

2. The second aim in the guidance movement at this stage of its development arose out of the great need for some kind of definite training for citizenship, half the population of the country at that time being of foreign birth. These newcomers brought with them foreign ideas, beliefs, and mores, which had to be adjusted to, and amalgamated with the tempo of American life.² Since the schools had direct contact with a large number of future citizens the problem of converting these newcomers into good law abiding citizens became largely their task. Thus it was that the second aim of the guidance movement was, preparation for citizenship.

This trend of the schools towards developing citizenship was recognized by William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, 1889-1906, in the following words:

"The more recent forms of school education are more comprehensive and emphasize far more the preparation for civil society, or for what is useful to the individual career of the citizen, as

1. John Eaton, "Instruction in Morals", Report of the Commissioner of Education, (1880), p. 35.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), pp. 340-343.

well as what fits him for the development of this common human nature."¹

Superintendent Brumbaugh of Huntington County, Pennsylvania, wrote in 1887 the following on the preparation of students for civic duties:

"The school is a power which will be felt in the government of the future The schools must send out boys and girls whose habit of thought, system of business, and uniform adherence to right have all been awakened, stimulated and exercised along the proper channels of life until the States may safely repose in them full confidence. Our instruction, therefore, needs to be so modified as to include careful training in civics and in the higher principles of morality."²

Writing of the late seventies and eighties, Boyd, in his History of Western Education, reported marked changes in the national life as a result of the industrial changes and consequent urbanization of population. These changes he reports had a very strong effect on the relations between the home and the child.

"Life in the large towns which are characteristic of industrialized civilization has not only brought about a weakening of the moral sanctions which determined conduct in the simpler days when most people lived in villages and country districts, but it has also made it more difficult for the individual child to find his proper place in society.

1. William T. Harris, as reported by T. J. Morgan, op. cit., pp. 132-133.

2. Supt. Brumbaugh, "Moral Training", Reports of the Commissioner of Education, (1887-1888), p. 167. (Martin G. Brumbaugh, first commissioner of education to Porto Rico, 1900-1902, and elected governor of Pennsylvania in 1913.)

Slowly but surely the school is stepping into the breach. In many cases it has become the centre of a variety of extra-academic interests which help to cultivate esprit de corps and so prepare for later social relationships."¹

In this quotation Boyd notes the new responsibility the school was assuming in regard to the moral well being; training, and development of the child.

This transition of many of the duties and responsibilities from the home to the schools was also noted in the following quotation written by Cubberley:

"The home altogether too often is un-intelligent or neglectful in handling children and not infrequently it has abdicated entirely and has turned over to the public school the whole matter of the training and education of the youth."²

The aims of the guidance movement in this period 1850-1890 centered around morality and the development of good character and training for citizenship. Towards the end of this period a new interest on the part of schoolmen and others interested in child welfare arose as to the relations between the child and the community and the home in a rapidly changing society. The influence of the latter movement on the attempts of the schools for guiding young people will be discussed in the next chapter.

1. William Boyd, History of Western Education, (London: A. C. Black, Ltd., 1921), p. 402.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Changing Conceptions of Education, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), p. 18.

Methods of Procedure, 1850-1890

The methods of procedure used in the schools to develop morality and civic virtue in students varied with the time and location of the school. In some cases the mode and manner of teaching moral education was left to the discretion of the teacher and was not prescribed by law.¹ In other school districts the method of teaching morals was strictly handled and carefully regulated.

One method which involved limitations placed on the teacher was such as described in the following quotation:

"The teacher must not speak of any vice, drunkenness, etc., so as to proclaim his knowledge that it may exist in a scholars home, but he is still free to enlarge on the manifold evil consequences of it. Thus his word may help somewhat to keep children pure in the midst of a bad home atmosphere, which he is otherwise powerless to change."²

When using this lecture method, teachers were strongly urged to avoid preaching on morals but encouraged to,

"At every opportunity impress by example, precept or illustration on the scholars the equal importance of the cultivation of the moral faculties with the intellectual."³

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1. John Eaton, op. cit., pp. 35, 36.
 2. Nicholas P. Gilman, "General Methods of Moral Instruction In Public Schools", Reports of the Commissioner of Education, II (1889-1890), p. 1173.
 3. T. J. Morgan, op. cit., p. 54.

A second method was having pupils read books on morals and manners. The Bible and Gow's book of Good Morals and Gentle Manners were widely read in classrooms, however, no suggestions as to how these books were to be used were found. It is probable that assigned readings in them were discussed later in class by the teacher.

"Familiar talks" between teacher and students was also a method commonly used.¹ This idea was the predecessor perhaps of the consultation periods and group guidance which developed later in the guidance movement. Gilman described a method similar to this in these words:

"Concrete instances of right doing or wrongdoing, happening in the schoolroom itself, or just outside, within the immediate knowledge of the boys and girls, offer the best starting point for talks about the moral points involved."²

Another method involved the use of moral mottoes which were frequently hung on the walls of the schoolhouse. These were memorized and the meanings explained to the students.³ "Words" was the name of another method found in this decade. Nicholas P. Gilman criticizes "Words" as a general method of moral instruction which was used in

1. John Eaton, op. cit., p. 35.

2. Nicholas Paine Gilman, op. cit., pp. 1172-1174.

3. John Eaton, op. cit., p. 35.

some schools in this period. Gilman's explanation of this method is as follows:

"Words"—this will usually be easy for the teacher to give in attempting moral education; but nowhere else does word amount to so little compared with example. If the word is not reenforced by the example, its influence will be small."¹

Another method of moral education was by incidental teaching. This was commonly used with almost all the school subjects, especially literature, and history.

"Scarcely a lesson need occur from which some moral instruction may not be drawn. For example; in the study of geography and history, the benefits of peace, of brotherhood, and of unselfish international-exchange;....in mathematics, the exactness of proper methods in producing certain desirable results,—may all be made by skillful, conscientious handling, to lead to a perception of the excellence of right-doing in the conduct of life."²

As indicated above, some schools had numerous restrictions as to how moral education was to be taught. In other schools the methods for carrying out the state law requirements for moral education were left to the discretion of the teacher. There was found no general method used during this period for developing morality and good citizenship in the public high schools.

1. Nicholas Paine Gilman, op. cit., p. 1173.

2. Elizabeth B. Chace as reported by T. J. Morgan, op. cit., p. 54.

Results and Tendencies, 1850-1890

By 1890 the idea of free public schools was generally accepted,¹ but the curriculum, the organization, and the aims of these schools were ever changing. The old disciplinary concept of education which offered only a very narrow curriculum and allowed for few individual differences had failed.² The methods used in moral education were said by President De Garmo, of Swarthmore College, to be defective in the "feebleness of its influence on the ideals and disposition of the child."³

Nicholas Paine Gilman in his article on Religious and Moral Training in 1890, also wrote of the weakness of the methods of moral training in the schools as follows:

"The present tendency to give moral lessons from little books on ethical instruction, is an exaggerated form of the old method of inculcating maxims and must be pronounced inadequate."⁴

Under the public school system of 1850-1890 many students dropped out of high school before finishing their courses, because they disliked them or they were unsuited

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919) p. 408.

Paul Monroe, Textbook in the History of Education, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1905), pp. 737-739.

2. Paul Monroe, Ibid., p. 529.

3. D. L. Kiehle, op. cit., p. 1053.

4. Loc. cit.

to them, or because they could so easily secure positions in industry.¹ Morgan wrote the following criticism of the public schools in 1887:

"The meagre results that often issue from long years of schooling, the vast number of pupils that drop out of the lower grades, the few that find their way to college, the spirit of indifference to learning that pervades so many educational institutions, the oft-repeated criticism of the public school system for its lack of practical results, the widespread agitation in favor of industrial training, and the bitter complaint of many distinguished men as to how they were educated, all point to a real defect in our system of education."²

Already private trade schools and special training schools were encroaching on the public schools and students eagerly flocked to them.³ The public schools were failing to keep in stride with the demands of the new economic and industrial life around them. The guidance program attempted by the schools was inadequate and did not lead to successful living.⁴ This era was the starting point of a per-

1. D. L. Kiehle, op. cit., p. 8.

2. T. H. Morgan, op. cit., p. 176.

3. Frank P. Graves, History of Education, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1913) p. 362.

4. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), pp. 348-349.

iod of investigation into the nature of the child, and the application of scientific methods to education.¹ However, the results of this period were not evident until a later period. The changed social and economic conditions tended to throw new responsibilities on the schools. The latter was now called upon,

"....to undertake some of the educational functions no longer provided either by the home or the shop. The industrial capabilities and the character of the child were now to be shaped, and some better preparation to meet the changed conditions of life was to be given...."²

The tendencies found in the development of the guidance program from 1850-1890 were not very distinct. Only in a few places were there indications of definite procedures for the guidance functions of the high schools, for example, the moral training, and instruction in civic duties which were required by law. In the next decade these tendencies took on more definite form in regard to the type and extent of the guidance functions in the school. These tendencies will be noted in the following chapter. The

1. Ibid., pp. 349-362.

Paul Monroe, History of Education, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1908), p. 418.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Changing Conceptions of Education, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909), p. 41.

gradual transition from the home to the school of certain duties and activities that had formerly been found only in the home was a most important tendency that affected the rapid development of the guidance movement in the next decade.

CHAPTER III
FURTHER DEVELOPMENTS IN THE GUIDANCE
MOVEMENT, 1890-1900

The decade 1890-1900 might be referred to as the one during which the United States was coming of age. Agriculturally, industrially, commercially, and economically the nation was growing very rapidly. Naturally all of these influences affected the lives of the people, especially of those young people who were completing their education and making plans for entering life careers.

Nicholas Murray Butler once wrote:

"Education, as a matter of course has always borne the impress of the civilization whose product it was."¹

This was never more true than at was in 1890. Life in the United States was being revolutionized by the technological improvements, and scientific discoveries and investigations.

1. N. M. Butler, "Status of Education at the Close of the Century", Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1900, p. 190.

The same was true of the public schools.¹ John Dewey wrote of these changes in *School and Society*, as follows:

"The obvious fact is that our social life has undergone a thorough and radical change. If our education is to have any meaning for life, it must pass through an equally complete transformation. This transformation is already in progress."²

The child study movement was acclaiming much interest among educators. James' Principles of Psychology, which appeared in 1890 explained human nature in terms of instincts and habits, emotions, sense perceptions and thought. This changed many of our ideas of human nature and had a profound influence on pedagogy.³ Psychology was becoming the science of education.⁴

Aims

The aims of the guidance movement at this stage of its development were found to be more clearly defined than in the previous period. This was due in part to the scientific information revealed by the child study movement of the nature

1. Alonzo F. Myers, and C. O. Williams, Education in a Democracy, (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937), 100-128.

2. John Dewey, School and Society, (New York: Mc Clure, Philips and Company, 1900), pp. 43-44.

3. G. S. Hall, "Child Study the Basis of Exact Education", Forum, XVI (September 1894), 429-441.

4. Alonzo F. Myers, and C. O. Williams, op. cit., pp. 127-8.

E. P. Cubberley, Changing Conceptions of Education, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin, 1909), 42-43.

of the child, to the more definite needs of the student as revealed in numerous school surveys and investigations conducted by schoolmen and to a demand for the reorganizations of the secondary schools.¹

1. The first aim of the guidance function of the schools was an economic one in response to the need of young people at the time for employment in industry. Therefore, the guidance functions of the school as they were perceived at this time, were to promote the facilities to aid students to prepare for jobs in the industrial, commercial, and agricultural fields.²

This aim was not a new one since it was practically the same as the one in the earlier part of the nineteenth century which led to the establishment of the first high school in Boston.³ The original aim of the first high school was to provide courses in mechanics and commerce in addition to the traditional college preparatory course. Many of the high schools had drifted away from this purpose by 1890 and offered little in the way of practical preparation for an occupation in life except bookkeeping.⁴

1. G. S. Hall, Life and Confessions of a Psychologist, (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1923), 501.

2. F. T. Carlton, Education and Industrial Evolution, (New York: Macmillan, 1908), 7-9, 12-16, 29-44.
R. L. Finney, The American Public School, (New York: Macmillan, 1921), 158-159.

3. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., pp. 185-188.

4. Ibid., pp. 572-3.

Cubberley wrote the following concerning the need for a new type of education in the last decades of the nineteenth century with a more comprehensive program to assist students in their adjustments to life:

"By 1889 not only had we at last become convinced as to the need of extending education upward for democratic ends, but by that time the industrial and social changes coming in our national life were making it evident that the further development and progress of our democracy would be seriously hampered unless the amount of education extended to our youths was both materially increased and changed in character."¹

To meet this demand for a more practical education the high schools began expanding their curricula. These additions were noted by Finney who wrote:

"Manual training, domestic science and art, and business training were added about 1890. Later came agriculture, modern languages, music and art...."²

In 1900 the Chicago High Schools included among their electives the following subjects which may serve as an example of the more practical curricula offered to students at the close of the decade.

Sciences - Physical geography, physiology (as required by law), biology, zoology, and botany (or zoology or botany), physics, chemistry, geology, and astronomy.

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 408.

2. R. L. Finney, op. cit., p. 259.

Commercial - Commercial geography, commercial law, commercial arithmetic, bookkeeping, stenography, tyewriting, economics.

Miscellaneous - Drawing,....manual training (one year) wherever practicable, and household science (sewing and cooking) wherever practicable.¹

Thus the high schools were again attempting to provide for the pupil "an education that shall fit him for active life, and shall serve as a foundation for eminence in his profession, whether mercantile or mechanical....."²

2. The second aim of this period was to discover and aid the development of individual abilities, capacities, and interests. This aim was stimulated by the findings of those engaged in the child study movement.³ As one writer in 1895 wrote:

"To be able to diagnose the child physically, mentally and morally, is one of the very first obligations of the teacher today."⁴

Speaking before the National Education Association in 1892, Eliot made the following remarks on the importance of discovering and making the most of each individual's capacities,

1. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 289.

2. Alexander Inglis, op. cit. p., 185.

3. G. S. Hall, "Child Study the Basis of Exact Education", op. cit., pp. 429-441.

4. C. C. Van Liew, "Child Study with the Cooperation of the Parents", Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1895, p. 229.

abilities, and talents in these words:

"It is for the interest of society, as well as of the individual, that every individual child's peculiar gifts and powers should be developed and trained to the highest degree. Hence, in the public schools of a democracy the aim should be to give the utmost possible amount of individual instruction, to grade according to capacity."¹

Charles Eliot, G. Stanley Hall, and John Dewey were the foremost leaders in the movement to make use of the knowledge of the child and the application of this knowledge for the improvement of the system of education.

It was during this same decade that the study of adolescence became quite important to educators, psychologists and teachers. Eby and Arrowood wrote the following concerning its popularization at the beginning of the century:

"Knowledge of adolescent life has profoundly revolutionized the attitude of parents, teachers and religious workers in regard to the treatment of youth."²

With the increasing study of the nature of the child and recognition of the needs of the individual in a revolutionizing society, the schools began to assume more responsibility for and took an interest in preparing and training youth to become worthy and contributing members of society.

1. William T. Eliot, "The Philosophical and Historical Background of Guidance", Bulletin 27, University of Purdue, 1936) pp. 7-8.

2. F. Eby, and C. F. Arrowood, op. cit. p. 848.

Methods of Procedure, 1890-1900

The period 1890-1900 as indicated elsewhere in this chapter was one of many changes in educational thought and practice. The methods used for achieving the aims of the guidance functions of the public high schools varied from each other in many respects as will be found in the following discussion of the developments in the guidance activities of this decade.

To achieve the first aim of this period, that of preparing students to actively engage in industrial work, the high schools expanded the curricula and offered more practical subjects. These changes are noted by various writers. Inglis in his Principles of Secondary Education wrote that:

"During the last quarter of the nineteenth century increased attention was paid to the clerical or commercial arts, to manual arts, and to the somewhat higher technical arts of industry."¹

Cubberley has noted the increase in the number of new courses in the high schools during the same period referred to above.

He wrote:

"After about 1880 the introduction of new subjects was so rapid that the old course of study became overcrowded resulting in:

- (a) the extension of the high school course to four years;
- (b) the introduction of options and

1. Alexander Inglis, op. cit. pp. 572-573.

electives in the course;

(c) the creation of a number of parallel four-year courses....."¹

Manual training was one course offered in an effort to assist students in preparation for general employment in industry. This subject was introduced in the public high schools in the late eighties in Baltimore, Philadelphia and Omaha.²

It was believed that manual training would train the muscles and thus make the individual more adaptable to other types of labor. This would provide a more practical base for vocational choice later on.³ Schoolmen also hoped that it would overcome the evil of wasted time, stimulate intellectual concentration and keep more children in school for a longer period.⁴ Such outstanding leaders in the field of child psychology as William James and G. Stanley Hall encouraged manual training in the schools and considered it a necessary part of education.

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 409.

2. Alexander Inglis, op. cit. p. 324.

3. C. H. Keyes, "The Modifications of Secondary School Courses Most Demanded by the Conditions of Today, and Most Ignored by the Committee of Ten", Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1895, p. 735.

4. Ibid.

Agricultural high schools were established in a few cities to prepare those students interested in farming. By 1898 there were about ten of these high schools.¹ These agricultural courses were frequently supported or assisted by the government, or incorporated later on into the cosmopolitan high schools.²

The second aim of the guidance functions of the high schools in the period 1890-1900 was to give increasing attention to and recognition of the individual. In 1892, speaking before the National Education Association, President Eliot of Harvard said:

"To discriminate between pupils of different capacity, to select the competent for suitable instruction, and to advance each pupil with appropriate rapidity, will ultimately become, I believe, the most important function of the public school administrator....."³

These same activities referred to by President Eliot were already part of the guidance functions of the more progressive schools in the large cities. For example, in his book, The Individuality and the Moral Aim in American Education, Mark included the following report which he received from H. E.

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1919), p. 410.

2. Loc. cit.

3. University of Purdue, Bulletin 27, "The Philosophical and Historical Background of Guidance", pp. 7, 8.

Kratz, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa, concerning the provisions for the guidance of students in Sioux City schools:

"The teachers have been given constant instruction as to the need and advantages of coming into close personal contact with each individual pupil. No two children are alike. Hereditary tendencies, environment, natural capabilities, and other influences playing through the sensitive soul of the child, will inevitable produce an infinity of variations. Hence personal study and instruction of each child, as far as the classroom will permit, is imperative."¹

In Minneapolis Mr. C. L. Sawyer of South Side High School had set up a plan for monthly reports on each pupil in the school. The teachers were expected to include in this report the "physical, intellectual, emotional and volitional characteristics of each pupil under their care."²

In the Chicago High Schools a plan for assisting students to select their course of studies was established. A brief description of this plan is given as follows:

"Pupils not preparing for the Normal School nor for College, but who desire to graduate, may make a judicious selection from the programme of studies, with the advice and approval of parents and principal, except that the study of the English language and literature

1. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 256.

2. M. V. O'Shea, "Report of the Work in Child Study in Minnesota", Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1895, p. 898.

shall be required of all pupils (as) one-half of the curriculum;"¹

This plan allowed the pupils to choose or elect from the courses offered those that most interested them. This was a distinct improvement over the earlier system of compulsory courses of study.

Flexible grading and promotion plans appeared in the eighties. Among them was the Batavia plan of individual instruction and advancement which was projected in New York at this time as a solution for the large number of over age students found in the high schools. It was hoped that by semi-annual or quarterly promotions the evils of the lock step system would be overcome.²

"Skipping" and individual promotions were beginning to appear as another means for recognizing individual differences towards the end of the century.³ An ungraded room was established in Chicago as a result of the findings of the psycho-physical laboratory connected with the University of Chicago. Certain principles were set up for the establishment of this special room. They were in brief as follows:

1. Only twenty pupils were to be enrolled.
2. Every pupil had to be examined at the child-study laboratory.

1. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 290.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1919), pp. 373-4.

3. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 62.

3. A special course of study was to be arranged.
4. The teacher should be versed in psychology, human anatomy,¹ physiology, and pathology.

The establishment of this ungraded room was largely an experiment, but in keeping with the ideas of the most progressive educators whose ideas were well expressed by Search, then Superintendent of Los Angeles schools, who wrote the following about fitting the school to the child:

"The school must be built for the perfect conservation of the individual. As such, he must be received and placed where he can get the greatest amount of good to himself, irrespective of all relative or mass considerations."²

Permanent record cards and reports to parents appeared in various sections of the country during this decade. T. H. Mark reports that individual records were kept of traits and the character of students by teachers in Philadelphia. At the end of the year these records are "summed up" and given to the next teacher. A special note was included in the record if there was physical weakness.³

In Springfield, Massachusetts blank forms were sent

1. Ibid., pp. 272-273.

2. P. W. Search, "Individualism in Mass Education", Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1895, p. 405.

3. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 152.

to parents and to the last teacher the pupil had had to secure information on those entering high school.¹ Teachers were also urged to visit the parents of the poorer students to ascertain home conditions and secure the cooperation of the parents. In reference to this Mark wrote:

"The wise teacher manages if possible to have an acquaintance with the parents of many children who attend her room. Nothing that the teacher can do will help her more than this. Teacher's efforts plus the parent's help are needed in every school and are needed for every child."²

Promotion and retardation became the subjects for numerous reports. In 1897 in Sioux City, the teachers made a study of the causes of retardation. Private conversations were held with both pupil and parent concerned. It was found that late entrance to school ranked first and poor health second among the causes of retardation.³ It was also found that the heavy mortality of pupils during the first year of high school was due in part to the lack of articulation between grade and high school which placed a nervous strain on those entering the high school.⁴

1. Ibid., p. 152.

2. Ibid., p. 202.

3. Ibid., p. 154.

4. Ibid., p. 82

In Chicago parents or guardians were informed every few months when a pupil was failing, and to them

".....a request (was) made for a conference, for the purpose of lessening the number of studies, changing them, or in other ways arranging them to make the school profitable to the pupil."¹

New York high schools at the same time were using printed forms for reporting progress or information about pupils which were sent by the principal to parents. These forms were for reporting concerning three items: homework, tardiness, and absences.²

A health program was first organized in Boston in 1894 after a series of epidemics among school children. Fifty physicians were employed and annual health examinations made. Chicago began health programs in schools in 1895, New York in 1897 and Philadelphia in 1898. The first state law to mention health examinations in public schools was passed in Connecticut in 1899. This law required "teachers to make a test of the eyesight of each pupil every three years."³ By the end of the century nearly thirty percent of the high schools included courses in physiology and hygiene.⁴

1. Ibid., p. 291.

2. Ibid., p. 215.

3. Department of Superintendence, "The Development of the High School Curriculum", Sixth Yearbook, (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, February 1928), p. 477.

4. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 646.

Special schools were established to meet the needs of individuals who were specially handicapped or defective.

Mark reports concerning these special schools:

"In 1898, thirty-six schools for the blind, 105 for the deaf, twenty-nine for the feeble-minded sent reports and statistics of their work to the Bureau of Education at Washington."¹

The majority of these schools were State institutions or public day schools. This marked an important step in the educational adaptation to those individuals who had formerly been denied the benefits of a reasonable amount of education.

The attempt of the high schools to provide for individual differences through extending the curriculum and the introduction of special courses and schools to meet the requirements of those desiring to enter occupations was a big step in the guidance movement. The attention of educators was increasingly centered on the interests and needs of the student instead of the subjects. This change in attitude towards the relations of the student, the community and the school indicated a changing philosophy of education and real progress in the growth of guidance in the high schools.

Results and Tendencies, 1890-1900

From 1890-1900 the influx of students to the increasing number of free public high schools demanded that the tradition-

1. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 160.

al type of curricula be changed and more elective courses, especially practical ones that would offer opportunities for preparing for jobs, be included.¹ As a result of this demand there were many changes and additions in the typical high schools of the decade as will be indicated in the tendencies of this decade given below.

This era of experimentation, study and application of new educational theories to the public high school stimulated the guidance movement that carried over into the twentieth century and resulted in so many revolutionary changes. While many psychologists and educators endeavored to create ideal schools to meet the needs of the students there were still many weak points as revealed by the report of the Committee of Ten in 1893.² The students undoubtedly had opportunities for a much broader education than in preceding decades, but not for a very practical one that was closely linked with meeting the problems of everyday living and working.

The manual training courses offered in the high schools to assist students in preparing for vocational life

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1919), pp. 407-412.

2. James H. Baker, "Committee of Ten", Reports of the Commissioner of Education, 1892-3, II, 1473-1491.

were not as effective as had been expected. The tendency by the end of the century was away from manual training because as Inglis has written, "manual training took the direction first of general discipline, then of 'manual expression,' rather than vocational efficiency."¹ The commercial courses were the most successful for preparing young people for jobs and were to take a more prominent place in the following decade.²

The elective system was fairly widely accepted by 1900,³ and destined to become an enduring factor in secondary education. More and more subjects were found to be worthy of study. The psychology of instruction and the relative value of subjects were now being discussed.⁴

The findings of the child study and the scientific movement in education had important implications for guidance as they were applied to the schools. Teachers and leaders in education all over the United States were becoming more concerned with the development of each student. Interest rather than formal discipline was to be the controlling motive

1. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 573.

2. Ibid., pp. 583-586.

3. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 168.

4. E. P. Cubberley, op. cit., pp. 319, 365-366.

of the school.¹ The teacher was no longer to be an isolated figure in the classroom but a co-worker in the development of each student. She was better trained and studied the physiology, psychology, growth and development of the child.² She was expected to know more of the physical, mental and emotional personality of the child,

"....in order to discover the predominance of physical emotions, as fear, anger, pride, joy, love, and the effect of her instruction and discipline upon the emotional and volitional nature."³

Both principals and teachers were beginning to take the role of advisers, counsellors and friends. They took part in community affairs and became acquainted with the parents and the home environment in which their pupils lived. Relations between school and home were given special consideration and encouragement.⁴ Much had been accomplished in public education in this decade, but much more was to be done in the following when the reorganization of the secondary schools became effective.

1. P. W. Search, "Individualism in Mass Education", Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1895, p. 606.

2. H. T. Mark, op. cit., pp. 263-269.

3. M. V. O'Shea, "Method and Scope of Child Study for Teachers in Service", Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1895, p. 928.

4. H. T. Mark, op. cit., pp. 200-218.

In this period the guidance movement in the high schools accomplished important steps. The contributions of psychology and the child study movement greatly stimulated the schools to make provisions for individual differences. The high schools began assuming responsibilities for the training of young people for socially and economically efficient citizens which was attempted through the addition of special courses, methods, and schools. All of these changes in the high schools of this decade indicated an important new trend which resulted in a more comprehensive and practical kind of high school in the following decades.

CHAPTER IV
ORGANIZATION AND EMPHASIS ON
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE 1900-1910

The keynote of the first decade of the twentieth century was efficiency. In 1908, Carlton wrote these lines which express very well the essence of the period:

"Today work, not idleness, is demanded. Production, not destruction, utilization, not waste, are demanded of men."¹

This influence had a decided effect on the development of education and the guidance movement in this decade. Of the changes in education in this period, Carlton wrote:

"In recent decades the science of education, like economic science, has been passing through important and fundamental modification. The emphasis has shifted from the leisure class ideal of education for culture and discipline to the industrial, utilitarian and democratic ideal of education as a means of improving civic and industrial efficiency."²

1. F. T. Carlton, Education and Industrial Evolution, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1908), p. 88.

2. Ibid., p. 7.

The changes in the methods and kinds of education offered in the high schools of this period encouraged the rapid growth of guidance in the high schools. This was especially true of vocational guidance which appeared in the last few years of this decade. The introduction of medical inspection and health guidance was not of major importance except in so far as it indicated the trend of the schools to take over the supervision of the health of its future citizens. The tendencies of the guidance movement in 1890-1900 for adjusting the school to the needs of the individual were encouraged and broadened in scope by various progressive cities in the decade 1900-1910 which is the period included in this chapter.

Aims

1. Instruction for learning a trade or preparing for a job was the most important aim in the guidance movement of this decade. The Industrial Revolution and the consequent specialization in commerce and industry had a large and extensive effect on all the institutions of the period. To secure positions in this industrial era young people had to be trained. Meyer Bloomfield wrote the following about the new demands being made on the school in 1911:

"New demands are made upon the public school system as the agency for solving the problem of vocational education. The right of every child to secure the best possible chance in life makes necessary the public control of vocational training."¹

The public schools responded to this demand with the introduction of more vocational training courses in the high schools.² This emphasis on vocational education was also an outgrowth of the democratic concept of education as a preparation for life.³ The following paragraph was written by Paul Hanus at the beginning of the twentieth century which expresses the popular concept of education at that time:

"....the education demanded by democratic society in modern times must be a preparation for active life. Now the only real preparation for life's duties, opportunities, and privileges is participation in them, so far as they can be rendered intelligible, interesting, and accessible to children and youth of school age; and hence the first duty of all education is to provide this participation as fully and as freely as possible."⁴

1. Meyer Bloomfield, The Vocational Guidance of Youth, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1911), p. 22.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1919), pp. 409-410.

3. Ibid., p. 355.

F. T. Carlton, op. cit., pp. 16, 17.

4. Paul Hanus, A Modern School, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1904), p. 4.

It was believed that with the establishment of the public school system there would be equal opportunities for all those interested in training for a trade or vocation as well as those pursuing a profession. This was aptly expressed by Hanus in A Modern School:

"Democratic education, that offers equal opportunities to all, must therefore, in my opinion, provide as adequately for the vocational aims of future artisans, merchants, and farmers as for future professional men."¹

Mr. Hanus elaborates this aim still more in the following quotation:

"....the school should acquaint the pupil with the meaning and the importance of a vocation; but it also means that the school should offer the pupil some training that begins the preparation for the life pursuit for which his tastes and aptitudes especially qualify him; so that when he leaves the secondary school he may enter on that pursuit itself, or on further preparation for it with some knowledge of its scope and meaning, some knowledge of the underlying principles on which success in it depends, and some power over its fundamental facts and processes."²

In this quotation there is the very important implication that the schools should now assume more responsibility for the success of the student in his adjustment to society than ever before.³

1. Ibid., p. 30.

2. Ibid., p. 29.

3. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 350.

2. The second aim of the guidance movement in this decade was to produce good citizens, who would be desirable elements in a democratic society. This involved the training of students to be ready to accept and assume the proper civic duties with desirable attitudes towards health, morals, conduct and other aspects of civil society. In past years the home and community had provided the experience, ideals and training for citizenship, but in recent years and with changes in the home life of many families in the United States, the schools gradually assumed this particular part of the individuals' preparation for life. As Carlton wrote in 1908:

"For many years the school has been gradually increasing its importance as a factor in molding the life and ideals of the young."¹

The need for a definite plan of guidance for citizenship was also emphasized by Carlton. He commented that too many immigrants had learned their lessons in citizenship from the ward "boss" which was certainly not in keeping with the best of democratic ideals. He wrote:

"....the school ought to display greater activity in regard to the practical teaching of good citizenship. Something more concrete and real should be given than mere platitudes regarding liberty and freedom."²

1. F. T. Carlton, op. cit., p. 76.

2. Ibid., p. 270.

The need for the expansion of the functions of education to include guidance for citizenship and participation in society was noted by Monroe in 1908 in the following:

"Education must be broader, schoolroom instruction more helpful, more immediately practical, and more directly related to conduct, and hence more moral."¹

Socially efficient and desirable citizenship involved not only good morals and conduct but also health. Therefore, part of the aim for developing citizens out of the high school population involved the protection and supervision of their health. The surveys and investigations of the previous decade into the general health conditions of the school population revealed a great need for the schools to take over some direct supervision of and provision for the health of the students.²

The beginning of medical inspection, and in a few of the more progressive school systems the addition of a school nurse to the staff was begun in this decade. By 1911 there were about 411 cities providing medical inspection in the schools.³

Of the two aims indicated in this chapter the domi-

1. Paul Monroe, Brief Course in the History of Education, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1908), p. 402.

2. H. T. Mark, op. cit., p. 285.

3. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919), pp. 394-395.

nant one was preparation for employment. This aim resulted in the remarkable development of the vocational guidance movement in the last few years of this decade. The other aim, guidance for citizenship was an important indication of the broadening scope of the schools functions and aroused interest in many other phases of the educational processes.

Methods of procedure, 1900-1910

In response to the demand for more practical subjects in the high school curriculum the schools added many more subjects. At the same time the elective system was extending its influence over the high schools. Both of these items complicated the choices the student was expected to make. The schools had not established a system to assist students in the selection of courses since there had not been a similar problem on such a large scale. The increasing number of students needing assistance and the array of subjects from which to choose necessitated the schools doing something to remedy the situation.

Bloomfield, in his book, The Vocational Guidance of Youth, refers to the heavy demands made on teachers for counselling both parents and students in regard to suitable¹ choices. He also reports that in 1909 the Boston School

1. Meyer Bloomfield, op. cit. p. 72.

Committee invited the Vocation Bureau, which had been established a few years earlier by Frank Parsons, to submit a plan for vocational guidance to assist the public schools.¹ In June 1909 the Boston School Committee accepted the plans and set up the first vocational guidance program in the public schools. This committee appointed a Committee on Vocational Advice in 1909 to organize the plan. These appointees held weekly meetings to discuss, plan, and make arrangements for putting the program into effect.

In 1910, this committee reported that a vocational counselor had been appointed in every high school in Boston.²

Further information taken from this same report as stated in Bloomfield's book is as follows:

The vocational counselors in high and elementary schools form a working organization of over one hundred teachers, representing all the schools. A responsible official, or committee, in each school stands ready to advise pupils and parents at times when they most need advice and are asking for it. They suggest whatever helps may be available in further educational preparation.

When this report was received and accepted by the Boston School Committee in 1910, the first organized plan

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1. Meyer Bloomfield, op. cit. p. 32.
 2. Arthur J. Jones, Principles of Guidance. p. 424 McGraw-Hill, N. Y. -1934
 3. Meyer Bloomfield, op. Cit. p. 38.

for the vocational guidance of youth in the public schools was formally established.

The activities of this first vocational guidance program as reported by the Committee on Vocational Direction were as follows:

As a beginning of our work with pupils we have followed out two lines; the lecture and the card record. The addresses have been mainly stimulating and inspirational. It seems to the committee, however, that specific information coming from those intimately connected with certain lines of labor should have a place also in this lecture phase of our work. In a large number of high and elementary schools addresses of this character have been given by experts during the year. The committee claim no credit for these, though carried out under the inspiration of the movement the committee represent. The custom of having such addresses given before the Junior Alumni Associations, Parents Associations, and evening school gatherings have become widespread, the various masters taking the initiative in such cases.

A vocational record card calling for elementary school data on one side and for high school data on the other, has been furnished all the elementary schools for registration of this years graduates. The same card will be furnished to high schools this fall. These cards are to be sent forward by the elementary school counselors to high schools in September, to be revised twice during the high school course. The value of the card record is not so much in the registering of certain data as in the results of the process of getting these. The effect upon the mental attitude of

pupil, teacher, and parent is excellent, and makes an admirable beginning in the plan of vocational direction.¹

In this outline given above of the activities of the Boston vocational guidance program, some of the essential methods of guidance programs, such as collecting data, keeping records and interviewing which were to be found in many high schools in the next few decades are indicated.

The methods of procedure for accomplishing the second aim of the guidance movement in this decade were rather poorly developed until well towards the end of the decade. There were, however, earlier, some indications that the student health conditions and provisions for problem children were fast becoming an important concern of the schools.

Boston started a voluntary medical inspection plan in 1894, and New York City a similar one in 1897, but it was not until 1902 that the first school nurse was employed. Mr. Carlton gives the following description of the duties of the inspectors and nurses.

The inspectors examine eyes, throats, and skin of the children; the nurses give aid and advice in the treatment of simple ailments, treat certain cases

1. Meyer Bloomfield, op. cit. pp. 39-40.

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1. Meyer Bloomfield, op. cit. pp. 39-40.

such as eruptions of the skin
or the presence of vermin.¹

Similar plans for medical inspection were found in Boston, Philadelphia and Chicago, and "by 1911 as many as 411 cities had provided medical inspection" in the schools.² Courses in physiology and hygiene found their way into the high school curricula towards the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century. Inglis reports the following concerning the teaching of these courses:

By the beginning of the present century nearly all States had made legal provision requiring the teaching of physiology and hygiene with "special instruction as to the effect of alcoholic drinks and of stimulants and narcotics on the human system."³

Educators hoped that the introduction of such a course would prepare students for healthful living. The instruction in such courses was poor and lack of good textbooks was another distinct handicap. Emphasis was usually placed on classification of the anatomy rather than on practical hygiene.⁴

1. F. T. Carlton, *op. cit.* p. 283

2. E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education In The United States*, pp. 394-5.

3. Alexander Inglis, *op. cit.* p. 645-6

4. *Ibid.* pp. 646-7

With the advent of compulsory school laws and the resulting increase in the enrollment of high schools throughout the United States the problem of the juvenile delinquent became acute. Carlton wrote the following concerning this situation in 1908:

.....in the crowded schools of our large cities the problem of the truant and delinquent or so-called "incorrigible" child has assumed serious proportions.

No teacher, no matter how conscientious or efficient she may be, can properly treat particular cases in a school of forty or fifty bright, energetic and restless children. Many cases require special treatment; and viewed from a purely financial point of view--let the taxpayer take notice--it is more desirable to treat the case now than later in the career of the particular individual.¹

The relations between school and home were too far apart to deal effectively with the problem. A visiting teacher was appointed first in New York in 1906 and shortly thereafter Boston and Hartford did the same to take care of problem cases.² The duties of these visiting teachers were essentially the same as those included in the personnel of modern guidance programs.³

1. F. T. Carlton, op. cit. pp. 239, 245.

2. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit. p. 197.

3. Loc. cit.

By 1910 the schools were assuming more and more direct interest in the students especially in those high school students who failed to make satisfactory adjustment in the school and dropped out. With the problem of a rapidly increasing enrollment in the high schools and a marked increase in juvenile delinquency the leaders in education throughout the United States began seeking ways and means of assisting students in their preparation for life.

Results and tendencies, 1900-1910

In this first decade of the twentieth century much progress was made in the development of the guidance movement. The demand for more practical curricula was being met by the schools with the addition of special courses and vocational training. About the same time there developed problems of adjustment, of promotion, and of meeting the special requirements of organized labor which required assistance. Few schools had actually established guidance programs but the need for them was just as urgent as before. Cubberley in 1909 wrote concerning this need:

In proportion as our social life becomes broader and more complex, a longer period of guidance becomes

necessary to prepare the individual for active participation in it.¹

The inefficiency of the schools in preparing youth for life was still a controversial subject. Cubberley noted this weakness of the public schools, especially the high schools as follows:

The school must grasp the significance of its social connections and relations, and must come to realize that its real worth and its hope of adequate reward lies in its social efficiency.²

The psychologists led by Dewey and Hall criticized the schools over-emphasis on the practical preparation of its students for vocational life. Hall felt that the child's interests and native tendencies were neglected and sacrificed to the development of specific skills.³

At the same time Thorndike, Goddard and Terman were developing mental tests and scales of educational measurement. These tests and measurements were not used extensively during this decade since they were not deemed of much value. Bloomfield referred to them in the following paragraph:

At present it is very doubtful whether psychological tests can

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1. E. P. Cubberley, Changing Conceptions of Education, 1909 p. 55, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston.
 2. Ibid. p. 54.
 3. G. S. Hall, Educational Problems, Vol. I, pp. 616-7 D. Appleton--1911.

be used to advantage by the counselor. Clues of value may be found in the elementary tests for vision, hearing, muscular sense, association-time, and the quickness of perception. Laboratory psychology, however, is not far enough advanced to enable one to fathom bent and aptitude. The common-sense tests of experience are more reliable guides,.....

The next decade was to see the expansion and adoption of a more psychological and scientific methods in the guidance movement than was anticipated by Bloomfield in the above quotation.

The expansion of the guidance functions of the school to include responsibility for the hygiene, physical welfare, placement, training, delinquency and success of its students in civic life were becoming evident. This selection from Cubberley is descriptive of this change in functions of the school at this time:

Each year the child is coming to belong more and more to the state and less and less to the parent....

The plea in defense that "the child is my child" will not be accepted much longer by society. Our future welfare is too thoroughly in the keeping of the child to permit of such a policy.²

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1. Meyer Bloomfield, op. cit. pp. 93-4.
 2. E. P. Cubberley, Changing Conceptions of Education p. 63, 1909, Boston. Houghton Mifflin.

The high school had now become an important public institution through which the ideals of American life were to be perpetuated. The public expected the schools to provide the necessary instruction enabling youth to become socially efficient and economically independent upon leaving school.

CHAPTER V
THE DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANIZED GUIDANCE
DURING THE PERIOD 1910-1920

At the opening of the second decade of the twentieth century it became quite evident that the schools were not providing a satisfactory type of education for meeting the demands of life in a highly industrialized society.

Commenting on this condition Hall wrote:

"Our land and our age are industrial. The prime condition of citizenship and self-respect is the power of self support. From all of this our school system has held itself aloof. Happily, however, a great awakening has begun."¹

1. G. Stanley Hall, Educational Problems, (New York: D. Appleton Company, 1911), p. 541.

By the awakening of the schools Hall meant that at last the schools were preparing to meet this demand by providing training and instruction more suited to the needs of the students. It was now generally agreed that the schools should offer industrial training. As Hall wrote:

"....industrial training is by general consent the greatest and most urgent problem confronting the American people. Its dimensions, complexities, and difficulties are even greater than those most interested have yet begun to realize."¹

The suggestion made by Hall in the last sentence has important implications for guidance in this decade. With the introduction of opportunities for vocational training on an extensive scale in the high schools there arose many complexities and difficulties such as the choice of occupation, selection of courses, and placement. To meet these latter problems guidance programs were organized within the schools. In this chapter will be explained this very interesting phase which was called vocational guidance.

In addition to the development of organized vocational guidance there also developed another kind of guidance called educational guidance. This type of guidance arose more slowly than the vocational since the pressure for this kind of assistance was not so great. A third type of guidance also in this decade was for citizenship. This was a carry-

1. Ibid., p. 540.

over from the preceding decade but with new and stronger emphasis, especially after the World War. All of these new developments in guidance are treated in this chapter.

Aims, 1910-1920

1. The principal aim of the guidance movement in this decade was vocational, a continuation of the vocational aim which had begun in the last years of the first decade of the twentieth century. The Boston School Committee was the first public school organization to introduce vocational guidance directly into the schools. The aims, organization, and procedures of this Vocational Information Department organized in Boston in 1913, with Miss Laura F. Wentworth in charge and under the supervision of Assistant Superintendent Maurice P. White, became the model for many other similar organizations in public schools for vocational guidance.¹ The purposes of this first Vocational Information Department as interpreted by Allen were as follows:

"1. To gather vocational information.

2. To select teachers and others and train them to act as counselors of pupils, and through them to distribute educational and vocational information to pupils and parents."²

1. F. J. Allen, Principles and Problems in Vocational Guidance, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1927), pp. 7-8.

2. Ibid., p. 8.

In 1915 the Vocational Information Department of Boston was revised and enlarged. It became the Department of Vocational Guidance under the direction of Miss Susan J. Ginn.¹ The same aims as given above for the Vocational Information Department were continued.

During the first half of this decade similar activities were carried on by E. W. Weaver, Chairman of the Students' Aid Committee of the High School Teachers' Association. The aims of the vocational guidance functions of this committee as reported in 1909 were:

"to aid deserving students to secure employment during vacations and for out-of-school hours in order to earn a part of their support; to advise those who are ready to leave school, and others who are compelled to leave school, in the choice of a vocation; to direct them how best to fit themselves for their chosen vocation and to assist them in securing employment which will lead to success in those vocations."²

The following statement taken from the report of the Committee on Vocational Education of the National Education Association in 1916 indicates to what extent the vocational guidance movement had become part of the regular school organization:

"Comprehensive vocational assistance, through specially trained teachers and others, is now recognized as a

1. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit., p. 424.

2. Report of the work of the Students' Aid Committee of the High School Teachers' Association of New York City, (May 15, 1909) p. 5.

proper part of the new machinery of service, service which should begin in the elementary grades and continue, at least to the period of young manhood and womanhood."¹

From 1910-1915 the vocational guidance movement spread very rapidly in the larger cities in the United States such as Grand Rapids, Michigan; Hartford, Connecticut; Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and Chicago. In Grand Rapids, the vocational guidance aims developed in a slightly different manner. J. B. Davis of the Central High School "inaugurated a plan of teaching a knowledge of the vocations through ten regular courses in English."² The aim of this method of conveying vocational information to students was the same as in other cities but it brought the teaching of vocational information into a much closer relationship to the schools.³

The aims of the vocational guidance movement in the high schools remained much the same as originally proposed by Frank Parsons in 1908 at the Boston Vocational Bureau with one exception. The followers of Parsons drifted away

1. Committee on Vocational Education of the National Education Association, "Vocational Secondary Education", Bulletin 21, (Washington: United States Bureau of Education, 1916).

2. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit., p. 424.

3. W. C. Ryan, Jr., "Vocational Guidance and the Public Schools", Bulletin 24, (Washington, D. C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1918) p. 25.

from his original emphasis on the abilities and aptitudes of the individuals and emphasized the distributing of occupational and vocational information.¹ This transition or shift in the aims of the early guidance movement was noted by Williamson and Darley in the following words:

"Strangely enough, the vocational guidance movement as it has developed historically has paid less and less attention to the problem of analyzing the individual and paid more and more attention to the problem of accumulating and disseminating information about occupations. Both phases of the work were recognized at the outset by Parsons as being of equal importance."²

It was during the last half of this decade 1910-1920, that psychologists were preparing the way for the reintroduction of the analysis of the individual to the guidance movement. The Carnegie Institute of Technology which was established shortly before the World War became a center of research and applied psychology.³ New methods and techniques of measuring and analyzing individuals were being developed very rapidly. These methods of tests and measurements were frequently used experimentally by psychologists on school

1. E. G. Williamson, and J. G. Darley, Student Personnel Work, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937) p. viii.

2. Loc. cit.

3. Loc. cit.

children but not in relation to the guidance functions of the schools. The most important contribution of the psychologists to the guidance movement at this time was,

"....the development of intelligence testing prior to and during the World War, together with the widespread application of intelligence testing in schools and colleges after the war."¹

It was not long after these developments that the aims of the guidance functions underwent major changes with the emphasis falling on the consideration of each student as an individual with likes, and dislikes, abilities, limitations, desires, ideals and ambitions. The changes and results of the new aims of the guidance movement that were beginning to take form in 1919 with the extensive use of tests, will be included in the next chapter.

The aims of the vocational guidance movement in the decade 1910-1920 may be summarized by the following quotations from Monroe and Cubberley respectively:

"It is not an attempt to find employment for young people, although this is sometimes done, but rather an effort to secure intelligent selection of a pursuit on the basis of adequate knowledge."²

"The idea underlying is not primarily

1. Loc. cit.

2. Paul Monroe, Cyclopedia of Education, V (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1913) p. 740.

to find jobs for young people, but rather to provide parents and pupils with information as to the demands and opportunities in the different life careers, and the best means of preparing for and entering them. The real purpose is to sort out capacities and adaptabilities, to prolong preparation in school, and to steer young people away from vocations for which they have no natural aptitude and from essentially "blind-alley occupations."¹

2. The second aim of the guidance functions of the high schools during the decade 1910-1920 was to provide a more general type of guidance which was known as educational guidance. In the History of Western Education, Boyd refers to this development as "a remarkable extension of the function of the schools beyond the mere provision of learning" to a concern with every aspect of child life.² In the following quotation, Bloomfield speaks of educational guidance as being equally important and preceding vocational guidance.

"The question of choice of a life-work involves quite as much selecting the right kind of further schooling as the right vocation."³

The concept of educational guidance as developed by Brewer in 1918 was as follows:

1. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1919) p. 420.

2. Wm. Boyd, op. cit., p. 401.

3. Meyer Bloomfield, Youth, School and Vocation, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1915) p. 28.

"Conscious effort to assist in the intellectual growth of an individual is educational guidance."¹

He elaborates his concept further in the following:

"Most educational guidance is also vocational guidance. But when it has to do strictly with social, civic, recreational and moral affairs, though it may bear indirectly on the occupation it cannot be called vocational guidance in the strict sense of the term....The distinction depends on the purpose involved: whether to improve the child's vocational chances, or to advance his education. And the chief educational guidance needed at the present time, and the chief way it can serve the vocation of the child is advice about, and improvement of his schooling."²

The appearance of this aim was due to a number of different factors such as surveys and studies carried on among the high schools in various parts of the United States. One of the most extensive surveys was the one carried on in Des Moines. This was a survey of what became of high school graduates. The results of this study were reported in the Des Moines Public School Pupil and Employment Vocational Bulletin No. 2, in 1914. The weaknesses of the high school organization was also the subject of a number of studies. A few examples of these are given below:

"At present only about one-third of the pupils who enter the first

1. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 401.

2. Loc. cit.

year of the elementary school reach the four-year high school, and only one in nine is graduated.... of those who enter the four-year high school, about one-third leave before the beginning of the second year, about one-half are gone before the beginning of the third year, and fewer than one-third are graduated."¹

"Investigations of causes for leaving school showed that 46 per cent left because they were restless and discontented, 20 per cent because they were backward, and 26 per cent because of economic pressure."²

"Boys leave school for a variety of reasons. The three most commonly offered are 'necessity', 'dissatisfaction with school', and 'preference for work'. "³

"There are two main reasons for children leaving school--economic pressure and dissatisfaction with school."⁴

"It does not seem to be the prime motive of the high school faculty as a whole to bring out the best that is in the pupil, but rather to permit the delinquent to eliminate himself from his class or school through repeated failures."⁵

The principal result of these studies as reported by

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1. Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education", (Washington D. C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1919) Bulletin No. 35, p. 8.
 2. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., op. cit., p. 47.
 3. Ibid., p. 54.
 4. Ibid., p. 58.
 5. Briggs, T. H., "Secondary Education", Bulletin 47, (Washington, D. C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1918) p. 32.

Mr. Ryan was as follows:

"Practically all these studies came to the conclusion that not merely vocational training was needed, but guidance—educational guidance that would keep boys and girls in school and help them select useful courses of study, and specific vocational guidance that would aid boys and girls in planning ahead for their future occupations."¹

As a result of these and many other studies of high school students many changes were made in the organization of secondary education.² Guidance in the public schools soon became organized around the seven fields of activity upon which the reorganization of secondary education was based, "health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure and ethical character."³ These seven fields of activity indicated a cognizance of the extended functions of the schools to include all sides of the student's life.

During the same period that these studies of school leaving and employment were made the states assumed the right to legislate school attendance laws.⁴ At first the age limit for compulsory attendance in most states was

1. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., op. cit., p. 38.

2. Frank F. Bunker, "Reorganization of the Public School System", Bulletin 8, (Washington: United States Bureau of Education, 1916).

3. Wm. M. Proctor, Educational and Vocational Guidance, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925) p. 85.

4. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1919) p. 492.

fourteen, then later sixteen.¹ The compulsory school laws increased the enrollment in the high schools very rapidly.² At the same time these masses of students needed help in selecting their courses of study from among all the electives included in the curriculum. Thus there developed a need for another type of guidance which was not purely vocational but educational and broader in scope.

3. The third aim of this decade was to prepare for citizenship. The sociological idea that education was a preparation for citizenship was commonly accepted,³ however the new ideas emphasized in the citizenship aim of the guidance movement as expressed by Monroe, were

"....that individual and social welfare, happiness and righteousness depend more largely than ever before recognized upon the relations existing between persons and classes in institutional life. Therefore education has a new work, that of clarifying the basal principles of this relationship and of giving information concerning the very complex relations in society and a new aim, found in social motive. The new work demands a readjustment of emphasis upon subjects of instruction, with greater attention to historic, economic and literary subjects."⁴

1. Loc. cit.

2. Kocs, L. V., and Keefauver, G. N., Guidance in Secondary Schools, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932) p. 492.

3. Paul Monroe, Textbook in the History of Education, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1905) p. 715.

4. Loc. cit.

This aim was not new but the emphasis was much broader and became a functional part of the high school program as will be indicated in the methods of procedure during this decade 1910-1920. This civic aim became particularly strong in the schools during and after the period of the World War.¹

The decade 1910-1920 revealed a tremendous growth in the guidance movement especially the development of more definite aims. The vocational aim was not new but it included more scope than in the previous decades. The aim of educational or a more general all around type of guidance was a more recent development which was to supersede the vocational aim in the next decade. The third aim, civic guidance, was more strongly emphasized and soon achieved new importance in the guidance functions of the schools.

Methods of Procedure 1910-1920

Since the guidance aims of the high schools in this decade were so different from those of preceding periods it was necessary that new methods of procedure be developed to achieve them. To carry out the vocational aim of the guidance movement in this decade a large number of methods of vocational guidance were found. The Committee on Vocational

1. T. H. Briggs, op. cit., p. 35.

Education of the National Education Association reported the following methods used for vocational guidance in 1916.¹

- "(a) selected readings under guidance of school with a view to conveying information as to economic activities, the qualities demanded in the various vocations, etc.
- (b) systematic reading and study of specially prepared pamphlets,...
- (c) individual or group conferences of pupils with teachers for purposes of discussing vocational opportunities, etc.
- (d) systematic study of young persons from the standpoint of their physical and intellectual makeup, with view to advising them as to lines of employment which they can most effectively enter;
- (e) 'prevocational training' with a view to discovering the pupils fitness....
- (f) systematic study of various economic lines of employment with a view of obtaining specific data to be used in advising young persons seeking employment;
- (g) maintenance of employment agencies for young persons of day or evening school with a view to assisting them to obtain work in suitable occupations.

Additional methods of vocational guidance through the giving of vocational information as used in high schools was reported by W. Carson Ryan, Jr., in 1918 as follows:

- "1. Through vocational talks by representatives of the vocation;
- 2. Through vocational pamphlets;

1. Committee on Vocational Education of the National Education Association, "Vocational Secondary Education", Bulletin 21, (Washington, D. C.; United States Bureau of Education, 1916) p. 71.

3. Through study of English, civics, and other school subjects;
4. Through regular courses in vocational information;"¹

Another method reported by T. H. Briggs for giving vocational guidance was,

"....by leading the pupil to a conception of the variety and the significance of the work to be done in the world. This may be done in part at least through a study of vocations. Pupils may thus be led to see what fields of activity are open both to boys and girls; what general and what specific personal qualities are necessary for progressive success, together with the special training required...."²

Another method which developed towards the end of the decade and was to have considerable effect on the high school curriculum was suggested by Brewer in 1918. This method involved vocational courses with good textbooks including exercises, suggested questions and problems to be worked out by the pupils with the assistance of the teacher. Mr. Brewer also felt that high school students were sufficiently mature and interested that detailed analysis of occupations should be included in the vocational courses.³

That the above mentioned methods were used may be shown by excerpts from Brewer's report on the vocational guidance in Boston High Schools.⁴

1. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., "Vocational Guidance and the Public Schools", Bulletin 24 (Washington, D.C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1918) p. 78.

2. T. H. Briggs, op. cit., p. 33.

3. J. M. Brewer, The Vocational Guidance Movement, (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1919) pp. 269, 270.

4. Ibid., p. 35.

"During the closing weeks of the school year members of the staff personally interview each member of the graduating classes, and also make an effort to aid in placement.... In most of the schools two or more teachers are allowed part-time for counselling individuals, but there seems to be no committee of cooperation between the several schools, and no attempt to supervise the work.... Effort is made to differentiate the school program, vocational outlook is widened early in the elementary school, advice comes sometime ahead of placement, efforts are made to keep children in school, an attempt is made to safeguard the critical time of school leaving, placement is carefully done, and follow up is provided for."¹

The methods for the vocational guidance of youth in Grand Rapids, Michigan, were quite different from the procedures used in other cities. Mr. Jesse B. Devis "inaugurated a plan of teaching a knowledge of vocations through the regular courses in English."² The plan evolved by Mr. Devis and described in detail for the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades is given below:

"Ninth grade.—In the ninth grade the study becomes personal, and enters into more elaborate biography. Typical exercises are as follows:
My ancestors: where they came from; why they came to this country; whether or not they had to contend with hardships; what they have done here.
My parents: Early life; hardships;

1. Ibid., pp. 35, 36.

2. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., "Vocational Guidance and the Public Schools", Bulletin 24 (Washington, D.C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1918) p. 25.

occupation, its difficulties and advantages. What have they done for their children? Myself: My childhood; my school life; any uncommonly good fortune, or bad, that has befallen me; my pleasures; my favorite studies; my ambitions; my health, etc.

Among the biographies most used in this grade are those of Helen Keller, Jacob Riis, Booker T. Washington, Phillips Brooks, Jane Addams, Alice Freeman Palmer, Mary Lyon, and Thomas Edison.

Tenth grade.—In the tenth grade a number of occupations are listed at the suggestion of members of the class; then each pupil presents one orally, or in written composition, helped in his preparation by means of an outline. Sometimes this offers opportunity to do research work. One girl listed 350 occupations for women, and the salaries paid each. Her method was to take the lists of the telephone directory and call up the people whose names she found, and then to ask what she wanted to know. Ingenuity will invent other methods. Others obtained their facts from relatives or friends who knew the occupations.

In the second half of this year some of the pupils will be ready to study some occupation that they expect to enter. An outline is usually given by the teacher to aid the pupil in his investigations. The following is an example:

My own vocation - (1) Origin or history, (2) modern conditions (as in preceding outline), (3) good points and bad points (degree of independence, permanence, importance, remuneration, money or pleasure in the work itself, or in social returns), (4) how to enter it (preparation, cost, length of time for study), (5) characteristics necessary to success.

Eleventh grade.—In the eleventh grade preparation for vocations is considered. Schools and colleges are studied--the industrial, professional, and purely literary schools; art schools; manual training schools, schools for physical training, etc. Each pupil is expected to take a special interest in some school and look it up through its catalogues and by interviews with graduates, and compare it with other schools of the same kind. The small colleges versus the large, coeducation versus separate schools for men and women, eastern colleges versus western, native versus foreign--all of these are used as subjects for discussion and debate. The subjects required for college entrance and other conditions are ascertained and pupils' own programs inspected to see whether their own work is properly mapped out to satisfy the colleges.

In the second half of the year the ethics of vocations are considered. Girls who are not going to college and have no special choice study problems of domestic life--the relation of mistress and servant, expenditure, treatment of clerks in the stores, proper dress, and buying good articles in providing household supplies. Those who have definite plans consider the moral codes of professions and business life. Here are debated the ethics of the Consumers' League, Anti-Saloon League, and other leagues for the betterment of social conditions.

Twelfth grade.—When the occupations of the business and professional world have been studied, some effort is made to single out for special study those which are distinguished as supported by and for the people because they are necessary for the public well-being

and the betterment of society. Public institutions maintained by taxes supply subjects for the first half year, and those maintained by taxes supply subjects for the first half year, and those maintained by subscription for the second. At the close of the year the student prepares a manuscript based on his reading, visits to institutions, and interviews.¹

The procedure used in Pomona, California high schools in 1918 was reported by L. W. Bartlett, director of vocational guidance as follows:

Vocational guidance as organized in the schools of Pomona, California, is based on the belief that if education is a preparation for life the essentials of vocations in which the pupils will find life should be emphasized throughout the entire period of preparation. To this end an effort has been made to bring industrial information into the lower grades through stories of industries, talks by representatives of vocations, etc.

The personal element is stimulated by means of a record card, which is used throughout the grades. Upon it are entered such items as qualities, aptitudes, environment, use of spare time, health, after-school plans, etc. The information for this large card is obtained from smaller cards which teachers fill out for all pupils every year and from personal interviews with the pupils.

In the high school speakers address the student body or groups of students, and in other ways the life motive is kept before the students.

1. Ibid. pp. 86-7.

To assist the pupil through this period a course in life career is given in the ninth year; and because many of the pupil's problems are individual each is given a personal interview.

There is another phases of vocational guidance in the Pomona schools that is meeting with good results. A great effort is being made to prevent the leakage from the schools. The problem is not so much to find jobs for those who drop out as to hold pupils in school until better prepared for participation in vocational life. To this end each pupil who is thinking of leaving or who does leave is interviewed in an attempt to right the misunderstanding which is often the cause. Many are thus saved.¹

In addition to the vocational guidance programs there were a number of other important developments which were necessary to secure the proper functions of such programs. For example vocational counselors were used in the Boston schools as early as 1912. The Committee on Vocational Education appointed by the National Education Association reported in 1916 concerning the Department of Vocational Guidance, the appointment of,

Three capable counselors selected to make investigations which should prepare the way for more effective vocational guidance work in the Boston schools.²

1. Ibid. p. 91.

2. Committee on Vocational Education of National Education Association. "Vocational Secondary Education"-United States Bureau of Education-Bulletin 21, 1916. p. 123.

The extent to which the idea of specially trained counselors had grown is revealed in the following quotation by the same Committee on Vocational Guidance:

Comprehensive vocational assistance, through specially trained teachers and others, is now recognized as a proper part of the new machinery of service, service which should begin in the elementary grades and continue, at least, to the period of young manhood and womanhood.¹

Another important development was the new methods of securing information about pupils. The Boston schools made use of a vocational record card which "indicated the parents' plan for the pupil; especial ability of the pupil in some line;" his physique and finally his own plan of life.²

The use of special tests was just beginning to appear in a few schools. Kelly predicted in 1914 that,

The use of special tests for vocational guidance is unlimited.³

This was not altogether true and as Pevctor reported ten years later,

The development of tests in this field (vocational guidance) has not kept pace with

1. Ibid. p. 120.

2. Ibid. p. 121.

3. T. L. Kelly, Educational Guidance, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1914.

the development of mental and pedagogical tests.¹

Tests and measurements, new techniques and methods were to become an important part of the guidance movement but not until the next decade.

The rapid development of the guidance movement in the decade 1910-1920 can be seen from the excerpts of vocational guidance programs used in high schools in various parts of the United States. At first such programs were found only in the larger cities like New York, Boston, Chicago and Philadelphia. However, it was only a short time before new methods and types of guidance programs which best fitted their needs were developed by smaller school systems throughout the country.

2. Educational guidance was the more recent addition to the guidance movement and frequently was closely allied with vocational guidance. However, during this decade in a very short time a number of methods for achieving this aim were developed by the high schools.

One of the most important methods was that of extending the duties of teachers to include counselling. In 1914 Mr. Ballou reported the duties of teachers to be the following:

1. Keeping a record of the attendance of pupils...

1. Wm. M. Proctor. op. cit. p. 314.

2. Care and distribution of text-books and supplies.
3. Copying records and report cards. This means (a) making in duplicate the promotion cards of each pupil; (b) copying program cards of each pupil; (c) copying report of each pupil for parents twice or three times each term; and (d) copying marks of each pupil on permanent record cards.
4. Having charge of discipline of pupils in the official class.
5. Disseminating school notices and general information.....
6. Looking after wardrobes and lockers; issuing keys, replacing lost keys, and canceling receipts at the close of the term, or when the pupils leave school.
7. Counselling pupils about their election of studies and progress in their work, together with other general administrative duties.¹

It is interesting to note that "counselling pupils" was the last mentioned duty of the teacher in 1914 and yet within a very few years only specially trained teachers were trusted with this function of the guidance program. Ballou mentioned that only five hours per week of each ^{time} counselor was devoted to counselling at this time while a few years later the counselors in many schools spent almost five hours each day in counselling functions.²

1. F. W. Ballou, High School Organization, 1914, p. 82-3. New York World Book Co.

2. Richard D. Allen, Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education. p. 147. Inor Publishing Company, New York, 1934,

In 1916 the duty of the counselor or "advisory teacher" had grown to include; the regulation of the amount of homework assigned to students when the assignment seemed to be too heavy; final responsibility for the group of students allotted to her keeping; the modification of conditions to suit individuals; and help and advise students when it was needed.¹ Bunker does not include in his article any mention of the organization to carry out this counselling in the schools.

In 1918 Brewer wrote the following which indicates the additional number of activities the counselor was expected to undertake:

The teacher should investigate the choices which children make,-
-their choices of studies, courses, companions and schools.²

By the end of the decade the duties of counselors were fairly well defined and the counselor became an important part of the personnel of the well organized guidance programs.

Superintendent Thompson speaking before the Richmond convention of the National Vocational Guidance Association in 1914 referred to the importance of school records in these words;

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1. Frank F. Bunker, "Reorganization of the Public School System." United States Bureau of Education-Bulletin 8, 1916. p. 108.
 2. J. M. Brewer; op. cit. p. 266.

"....the school records of pupils if properly kept and reasonably comprehensive furnish enough presumptive evidence upon which effective guidance can be tentatively based."¹

Kelly in his book Educational Guidance particularly stressed the advantage of a permanent record card for guiding and assisting students throughout their school career. In 1914 he concluded his discussion with the following statement:

"There would, therefore, be many advantages for educational and even more particularly for vocational guidance if there were available grades representing ability and effort as well as accomplishment."²

In 1918 Brewer includes the keeping of cumulative record cards among the duties of principals. "These records may be frequently renewed or revised, and should register changes of viewpoint on the part of the child, his school marks, the preferences of his parents, and his interests outside the school studies."³

Another important addition to the guidance movement was the appointment of visiting or home teachers by numerous school boards in 1913.⁴ Cubberley explains the need for a

1. Thompson, S. E., "Vocational Guidance", Bulletin 14, (Washington, D.C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1914).

2. T. L. Kelly, op. cit., p. 81.

3. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., pp. 239, 240.

4. E. P. Cubberley, Introduction to the Study of Education and to Teaching, (San Francisco: Houghton Mifflin, 1925) p. 304.

visiting teacher to secure better home-school cooperation, follow up the guidance work done by the school to avoid economic waste, to aid in the social welfare of students and make special provisions for exceptional cases.¹ The duties of the visiting teacher as Cubberley outlined them were:

- "1. Interviews child and parents.
2. Tries to gain family confidence.
3. Analzes the case.
4. Reports and recommends to the school.
5. Follows up her cases, like the nurse.
6. Gets legal protection for child if needed."²

The functions of the visiting teacher as part of the guidance movement became fairly well established by the end of this decade.

Another important addition to the educational guidance methods of this decade was the increasing use of tests and measurements. Kelly predicted that there would be a heavy demand on guidance bureaus for statistical information but it was not until the close of this decade that mental tests were used on a fairly wide scale for purposes of guidance.³ Thorndike, Courtis, Ayers, and Hillegas invented

1. Ibid., pp. 304-305.

2. Ibid., p. 304.

3. R. L. Finney, The American Public School, (New York: Macmillan Company, 1921) pp. 249, 279, 305.

scales of educational measurement in the first half of the decade.

These standard tests were widely used and the results obtained became part of the data for educational guidance. Concerning the rapid development of various types of tests Finney wrote:

"The development of mental measurement has indorsed and abetted the development of educational measurements, and the studies of elimination and retardation have created a demand for both. At the present time scales and tests are used in all but unprogressive schools everywhere."¹

The unusually rapid growth of the educational phase of the guidance movement and the important contributions made in this decade may be summarized as the following:

- "1. Counselors for aiding and advising students in school.
2. Permanent record cards for recording data on each student.
3. Visiting teachers to act as coordinators between homes and schools in special cases.
4. The introduction and use of mental measurements and standardized tests for the classification and guidance of students.

3. The third aim of the guidance movement from 1910-1920 was the development of citizenship in young people.

Finney wrote:

"During the past ten years community

1. Ibid., p. 279.

civics, so called, has come into prominence also.... This subject is supplementing, and to some extent supplanting, the older civics, and is being taught to the upper grades of the elementary school as well as in the high school. Besides this, intelligent teachers are increasingly emphasizing the social importance of all the elementary studies, and introducing more cooperative methods in the government and especially the discipline of the school. The aim of all this is to prepare the child for civic and social duties."¹

One method for attaining civic training was proposed by Brewer. He believed:

"Schools must provide a means of self-government, with the direction of student activities more or less in the hands of the pupils. By such methods young people will learn the true meaning of both obedience and leadership."²

Student and club activities were encouraged as Brewer wrote "for through them many pupils find themselves".³ This idea of participating in civic relationship, by school government, clubs and extra curricular activities was stimulated and encouraged by Dewey. His philosophy according to Finney's interpretation was that,

"The educative progress must bea practice in cooperative social activities; school life must be natural social life, in a sort of simplified miniature society."⁴

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1. R. L. Finney, op. cit., pp. 239-240.
 2. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 226.
 3. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 265.
 4. R. L. Finney, op. cit., p. 269.

Dewey's philosophy and concept of education had much influence. As a result more and more of the progressive high schools provided for student participation in various types of activities to develop their personalities and abilities to get along in social group life.¹ Inglis favored Dewey's ideas as may be noted in the following quotation:

"Nevertheless, it must be recognized that there is only one way to acquire social-cooperativeness, and that is through social cooperation, that there is only one way to learn how to control one's conduct and that is through meeting the responsibility for that conduct, that there is only one way for groups to attain the ability for self-government and that is through actual participation by the group in its own government. Socially conscious and socially cooperating American citizens cannot be developed through the school unlessⁱⁿ the school these citizens are trained through actual participation in the cooperative activities of the school. Self-governing American citizens can be developed only through some degree of exercise in actual self-government."²

Another method for achieving the civic aim of the guidance functions within the schools was through the marked improvement and change of emphasis in the civic and social science courses offered in the schools. "Modern civics",

1. Irving King, Education for Social Efficiency, (New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1913), pp. 166-168.

2. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 720.

wrote Inglis in 1918 "by dealing first with the civic activities which intimately touch the young citizen even as a pupil in the school affords greater opportunity to develop actual habits of behavior in civic affairs."¹

At the time constants were established in the high school curriculum civics or social science was usually included among them.² Inglis explained the inclusion of certain subjects as constants in the following lines:

"The area of constants includes that portion of the work of the senior high school work which is to engage the attention of all pupils of regular standing. Here belong the study of English, social science and physical training."³

The expansion of opportunities for developing the civic aim was especially rapid during and after the World War.⁴

Writing in the period 1918-1920 of the civic training of young people, Finney said,

"American democracy is preparing to train its rising generation to share

1. Ibid., p. 561.

2. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 260.

3. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 689.

4. T. H. Briggs, op. cit., p. 226.

R. L. Finney, op. cit., pp. 300, 301.

in all the varied interests and responsibilities of the new and higher civilization into which we are just entering....It would be utterly impossible for democracy to succeed in that new age unless the people have a much more liberal, varied and practical education than has been necessary in the past....Nor can democracy succeed unless all the people are accorded such an education. Hence, the developments in school organization and the extension of material equipment."¹

In the next decade after the one stressing the need of reorganization of secondary education these opportunities for the development of civic and social responsibilities were given special consideration as among the principal functions of the guidance activities of the public schools.

Results and Tendencies, 1910-1920

In the years 1910-1920 the public schools underwent a number of very important changes one of which was the increased emphasis on guidance as a part of the function of the high schools. Just as the curriculum changed and theories of education shifted from time to time so did the concept of guidance. The concept at the beginning of this decade was primarily concerned with the giving of vocational advice in regard to choice of vocation, preparation for a vocation in placement.

1. R. L. Finney, op. cit., p. 262.

An excellent definition of this concept of guidance is as follows:

"Vocational guidance includes all systematic efforts, under private or public control, and excluding the traditional activities of the home, the conscious and chief purpose of which is to secure the most economical and effective adjustment of young people to the economic employments which they can most advantageously follow."¹

The student receiving such advice was not examined or studied as to his personal qualifications except in a very casual manner. Those giving advice were usually not specially trained but merely interested in the problems of youth.

Towards the end of the decade after experimentation with and limited use of various kinds of tests and measurements the concept of vocational guidance broadened its scope. The concept of vocational guidance as defined by Brewer in 1918 was:

"The common meaning of the two words in the phrase in the phrase vocational guidance suggests that we are concerned with helping persons to choose, prepare for, enter into, and make progress in occupations."²

Writing in the same period, Paul Monroe stated a def-

1. Committee on Vocational Education of the National Education Association, Bulletin 21, 1916.

2. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 1.

inition of the concept of vocational guidance which indicates the use of tests and measurements as a basis for intelligent vocational guidance. "Vocational guidance", he wrote,

"....is not an attempt to find employment for young people, although this is sometimes done, but rather an effort to secure intelligent selection of a pursuit on the basis of adequate knowledge."¹

A further change in the concept of vocational guidance, one which had a marked effect on the subsequent development of guidance was expressed by Inglis. He wrote in 1918 that,

"....as the guidance movement developed two facts became clear: (a) that from the viewpoint of the school at least vocational guidance is but one phase of educational guidance, which in its broader sense includes vocational guidance, moral guidance, vocational guidance, and educational guidance in the narrower sense."²

Parallel with the changes in the concept of vocational guidance there gradually developed a concept of educational guidance as a more general type of guidance. Writing of this new concept of guidance in 1914, Kelly wrote:

"The modern idea of education is crystallizing into an effort to guide rather than instruct....to answer to a need rather than to

1. Paul Monroe, Cyclopedia of Education, V (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1913) p. 740.

2. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 717.

a curriculum. The growing recognition of the need for vocational and educational guidance is resulting in the establishment of bureaus endeavoring to give the former, and in the training of psychologists to solve the problems of the latter."¹

A few years later in 1918 this concept had become more definite in aim. Brewer listed the following aims which illustrated his concept of educational guidance at that time:

"....to study each child as a separate problem; to make the school organization flexible and to provide for the teacher's playing the part of counselor; to turn to account the vocational possibilities of the school program and to add to the program an effective course on occupations, to encourage and direct such student and club activities as will contribute to the finding of vocational clues; to use the prevocational and continuation school for self-discovery, in schools of secondary and college grade definite preparations for occupation; to develop, with all, good traits of character."²

In the above quotation the dominance of the vocational idea can easily be traced. This dominance was soon to be reversed as was found in the concept of educational guidance written by Inglis in 1918.

1. T. L. Kelly, op. cit., p. 1.

2. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 95.

"The newer conception of guidance involves primarily a system of educational experiences designed to permit the pupil to explore, try out, and thus gain some understanding of his own capacities, aptitudes, and interests, to open up to the pupil's view the opportunities of life and of education, and as far as possible to make him acquainted with the privileges, demands, and responsibilities of life in its various phases, vocational, social, civic, and moral."¹

Educational guidance became fairly well established as part of the guidance programs of high schools but it required a few more years to complete its proper development and become an integral part in the growth of the whole guidance movement.

The results and tendencies of the guidance movement from 1910-1920 were far more extensive than could have been foreseen by any of the early leaders.

Vocational guidance expanded to include vocational training, placement, employment supervision, and vocational information. The extent to which vocational guidance was part of high school organizations was revealed by the data collected by the United States Bureau of Education. Jones reports that these data collected in 1918 revealed 932 four-year high schools out of the 5,628 contacted having vocation

1. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., p. 718.

bureaus, employment departments, or similar devices for placing pupils and giving vocational guidance.¹

Vocational counselors in Boston reported that one favorable result of the vocational guidance activities of the schools was the interest and concern of parents shown for the success of their children in satisfactory careers. They also reported that the number of interviews between parents, teachers, pupils and principals were increasing.²

Another important result of vocational guidance was the gradual realization that every child is unique and must be considered individually. This was particularly important in regard to vocational choice. As Bloomfield wrote:

"The vocational decision, when made, should represent chiefly the conclusion reached by the boy or girl, young man or woman, or whoever the individual advised may be. Decision is not the business of the counselor, but that of the applicant."³

A demand for vocational guidance to become broader, more scientific and systematic was beginning to be noted by the end of the decade.

1. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit., p. 426.

2. Committee on Vocational Education of the National Education Association, "Vocational Secondary Education", Bulletin 21, (Washington, D.C.: United States Bureau of Education, 1916)

3. Meyer Bloomfield, op. cit., p. 103.

"Genuine and systematic study of the complex problems of vocational guidance, no matter on how small a scale, is more to be desired than attempts to find by-paths and short-cuts. Mystical and futile activities should be abandoned and energy directed into improving the school environment of the child, studying the occupations, or other legitimate efforts, if real and permanent progress is to be made."¹

The same demand was noted and its further development predicted by Finney:

"The movement (vocational guidance) will probably ally itself with the mental measurements movement in psychology, an important part of our educational program."²

Educational guidance was such a recent movement that by 1920 there were few results that could be attributed directly to it except the improvement in the distribution and classification of high school students,³ the increased flexibility of the high school curriculum⁴ and the development of new methods and techniques.⁵ The newest tendencies of edu-

1. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 177.

2. R. L. Finney, op. cit., pp. 249-250.

3. E. P. Cubberley, Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1919) pp. 450-454.

Irving King, op. cit., pp. 232, 233.

4. Alexander Inglis, op. cit., pp. 667-685.

5. Irving King, op. cit., pp. 233-250.

educational guidance were towards the use of mental measurements, rating scales, permanent record cards, and counseling.¹ Civic guidance was absorbed by the expanding aims of educational guidance, and no longer treated as an isolated objective of guidance.² The development of citizenship by actual participation of students in community life and school government³ was the latest tendency of this phase of guidance.

By 1920 the guidance movement was securely established to some extent in the majority of high schools throughout the United States. There were a great many kinds of organized and unorganized programs, in rural and urban, large and small high schools all attempting the guidance of youth. Although emphasis of the guidance movement in this decade was largely vocational, there were indications that educational guidance would soon take an important part in the growth of the movement in the high schools. The concept of guidance was constantly changing as the high schools adapted their organization to the increasing demands for reorganization, for more practical course and for more direct assistance in

1. Ibid., p. 303.

2. Ibid., p. 161-163.

3. J. M. Brewer, op. cit., p. 81.

preparing for life. Systematic organization of guidance was still in an elementary stage and the application of scientific methods on a large scale was part of the development of guidance in the next decade.

CHAPTER VI

BROADENING CONCEPT OF GUIDANCE, 1920-1930

In the years from 1920-1930 the growth of the guidance movement in public high schools was both rapid and diversified. The changes in American life and the reorganization of secondary education which followed the war acted as stimuli to the development of guidance in the high schools. The character of the guidance movement itself underwent many changes one of which was the application of scientific tests and measurements on a large scale. Another important change was the development of new methods and techniques such as the interview, permanent record cards, case studies, and follow-up procedures.

These changes in the development of the guidance movement were mentioned by many writers of this decade. Payne writing in 1925 about the growth of the guidance movement

noted the following:

"During the seven years following the signing of the Armistice much progress has been made in the field of guidance. This progress has been marked by the scientific character of the work. The individual, inspirational interview method has been abandoned. Scientific analysis, the classification of case groups, the development of scientific tests, standards and techniques have made the old guidance methods advocated before the war very much out of date."¹

Writing in 1926, Kocs likewise referred to the rapid growth and changes in the development of vocational and educational guidance movements as follows:

"These are but natural accompaniments of most of the other trends that have so far been called to mind, specifically the increasing proportion of youth attending our high schools, the expanding number of subjects and numbers of curricula, the opening up of opportunities for vocational training and the multiplication and educational utilization of extra curricular activities. Among factors outside the school which have stimulated the developments, have been the sheer multiplication of the number of occupations represented in the world's work, coupled with a need and demand for guidance that have been so urgent that it has been possible for illegitimate commercial attempts to flourish."²

Besides these changes and expansions in the develop-

1. A. F. Payne, Organization of Vocational Guidance, (New York: Mc Graw-Hill, 1925), p. 29.

2. Leonard V. Kocs, Trends in American Secondary Education, (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1926), pp. 41-42.

ment of the guidance movement in the high schools of this decade there were other important developments in guidance. For example the organization of guidance activities as part of the school program, the provision of trained counselors and advisors, the introduction of extra-curricular activities as a means of guidance and the organization of health supervision. These additions and developments in the guidance movement in this decade which resulted in a more complete, scientific, and organized system of guidance will be discussed in this chapter.

Aims, 1920-1930

The aims of the guidance movement in this decade were found to be both varied and numerous. Some schools emphasized one thing and other schools another. However, the aims as a whole may be classified under two headings, vocational and educational.

1. The aims of vocational guidance emphasized during this decade and reported by Proctor in 1925 may be used as an example of this decade. They included the following points:

1. Vocational information
2. Vocational counsel
3. Vocational training
4. Placement and follow-up¹

1. W. M. Proctor, op. cit., pp. 253-261.

The first point, vocational information was not new. In the first vocational guidance program established in Boston the first purpose expressed was "to gather vocational information".¹ Although the second point, vocational counsel was likewise included in the Boston plan, this part of vocational guidance took on new importance. Trained vocational counselors now gave more expert advice in a systematic manner than had been possible before. The third point, vocational training was given special emphasis during this period since the Smith-Hughes law was passed in 1917.² In 1925 this law had led to the establishment of special high schools for vocational training according to Payne:

"At the present time this tendency toward diversification in the high schools has reached the stage where we now have special-type high schools, such as commercial high, technical high, vocational high, manual high, English high, etc....."³

Vocational training was now actually part of the activities of education and specifically a part of the vocational guidance programs of secondary schools⁴. Edgerton and Herr

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 2.

2. Ibid., p. 130.

3. Arthur F. Payne, op. cit., p. 78.

4. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 93.

reported in 1924 that 77 per cent of the 635 secondary schools included in their survey provided vocational training programs.¹

The last point, placement and follow-up, was not a new addition to the vocational aim since it was one of the aims of the Chicago guidance program in 1912.² This aim was treated in a more systematic manner than before as will be indicated in the Methods and Procedures discussed in this chapter. The aim of placement was to assist students to find suitable positions after they were prepared. This phase of vocational guidance was referred to by Finney in 1921 as follows:

"Its need (placement and follow-up) is particularly emphasized by the fact that young people often, perhaps generally, drift into occupations without due consideration of the duties involved or of opportunities for growth, advancement, and ultimate success which the chosen occupation presents. As a result, many find themselves misplaced while others, even if competent to the tasks required, are much better fitted for something else."³

It was to avoid the misplacement of students mentioned above and to provide a follow-up procedure to see that the

1. A. H. Edgerton, and L. A. Herr, "Present Status of Guidance Activities in Public Schools", Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, p. 19.

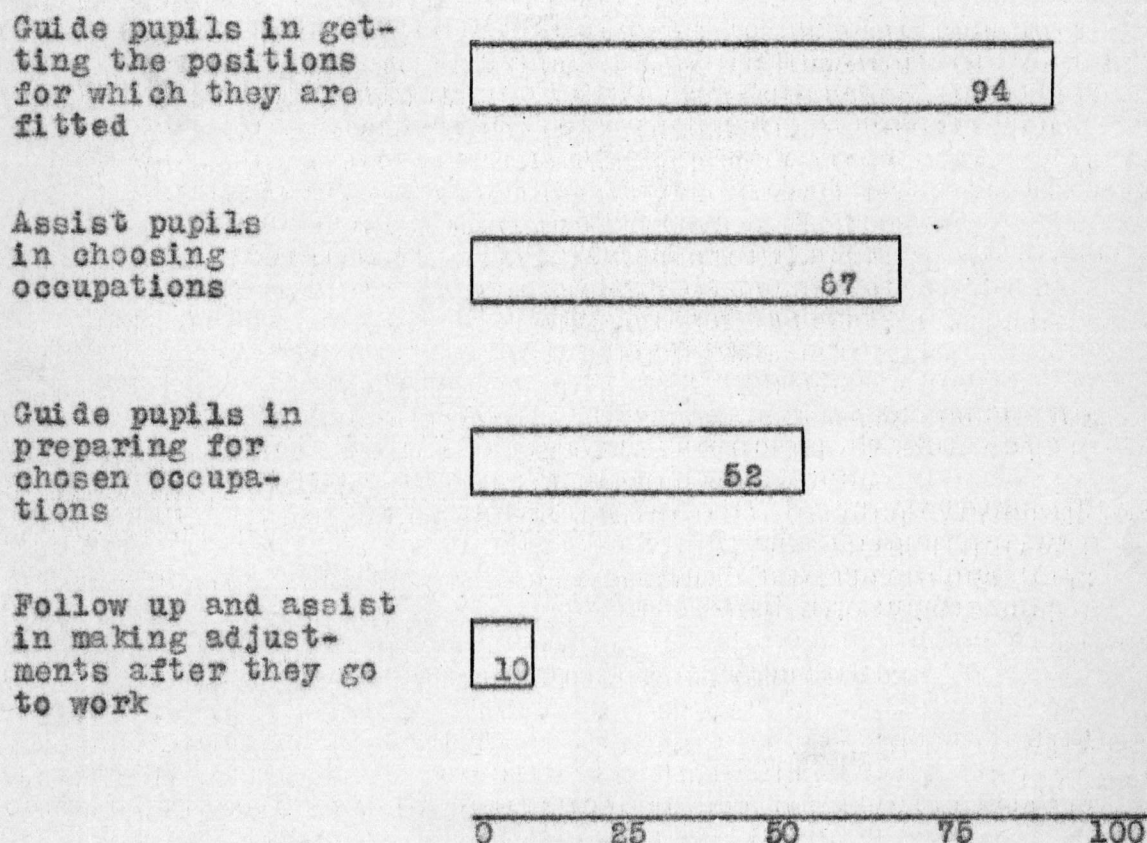
2. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 11.

3. R. L. Finney, op. cit., p. 250.

young person was achieving average success and advancement in his job that this aim was included among those for vocational guidance.

An excellent graph prepared by Edgerton and Herrin 1924 indicates the emphasis placed on vocational guidance activities by the school systems of 143 cities. The activities listed illustrate the typical aims of vocational guidance in this period.¹

Graph Showing the Distribution in Percent
of the 143 Public School Systems According to the General
Guidance Activities Provided



1. A. H. Edgerton, and L. A. Herr, "Present Status of Guidance Activities in Public Schools", Twenty-Third Yearbook, 1924.

As mentioned in an earlier part of this chapter there were many changes and shifts of emphasis in the growth of the guidance movement. This was found to be particularly true of vocational guidance. In many cases it was found that the schools emphasizing the vocational aim gradually expanded the scope of this type of guidance so that it overlapped with educational and other kinds of guidance. This may be illustrated by the following quotations from Allen:

"Vocational guidance has a social aim even more important than its individual aim. The effort to help John and Mary make a success of their careers is essential, but it is one of the imperatives of good citizenship that we prepare every child to cooperate with his fellows in the solution of those difficult vocational problems which no individual or small group of individuals can solve alone."¹

"Vocational guidance has an important and intimate relationship to other forms of guidance, particularly educational guidance.....Consequently this movement is vitally concerned with the unification of the personality and with other principles of mental hygiene."²

"The object of vocational guidance is not to prescribe a vocation for the child, but to get the parents, teachers, and child "to bring to bear on the

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., pp. 43-44.

2. Ibid., p. 44.

choice of a vocation organized information and organized common sense"; not to decide for the child what he shall do, but to provide him with the necessary information so that he can choose wisely."¹

This tendency of the vocational guidance movement to expand in scope and become a more general type of guidance was very much influenced by the seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education which were proposed in 1918 by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.²

These principles formed the basis of organization for Proctor's book Educational and Vocational Guidance as may be shown by reading the titles of his chapters. The types of guidance listed by him are: social-civic, leisure-time, vocational, educational, health and character-building,³ all of which are included in the seven Cardinal Principles.

During this same period, Cubberley's writings also showed the influence of the Cardinal Principles. He wrote of this expansion of the scope of guidance as follows:

"Beginning with an attempt to guide pupils into the right vocations, the

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 100.

2. Report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, op. cit., Bulletin 35, 1918.

3. William M. Proctor, op. cit., Chapters XIII, XIV and XV.

guidance function of the school has been so expanded in recent years that today it comprehends far more than this, and includes educational guidance, health guidance, moral guidance, and social guidance during their school life, as well as vocational guidance towards its close. The work culminates with the placement of the pupil when his training is completed, and some follow-up oversight to see that the youth gets properly established in the work of life."¹

This expansion of the guidance movement to include more than mere vocational placement was also due in part to the awakening of educators and others interested in the welfare of young people. In the Editor's Introduction to Proctor's book, Cubberley wrote:

"The many misfits in life and in industry, and the many blind-alley occupations which school pupils entered, had alike attracted the attention of thoughtful men and women interested in child welfare, and the movement began in an attempt to offer vocational guidance.....As the movement has developed, though, we have come to a clear consciousness that the proper guidance of young people is a far larger undertaking than merely directing them into suitable occupations at the close of their school career; instead it involves their proper educational guidance for a long period preceding their entry into a vocation. The proper vocational direction of a pupil toward

1. E. P. Cubberley, Introduction to Education, (San Francisco: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1925), pp.310- 311.

the end of his school period, we now know, should have involved the earlier study of individual capacity and personal factors, the exploration of special interests and abilities, the organization of a long-continued guidance program in studies, health-building, direction of social and character-building activities, sound civic training, and the imparting of vocational information, as well as guidance in making vocational choices."¹

The development and application of psychological tests on a wider scale than ever before was another contribution to the development of the more general type of life guidance in the decade 1920-1930. Writing during this period when educators and others were more concerned with the individual or personal emphasis in the guidance movement, Payne wrote:

At the present time we are thinking more than ever before in terms of people. The new science of psychology, the tests of intelligence, vocational tests, rating scales, the development of the personnel engineer and the labor manager in industry, the idea of industrial democracy, collective bargaining, equalizing the opportunities for a fitting education of all classes of people are a few of the indications of this period.... In our public schools we are thinking in terms of boys and girls, their needs, their capacities, and their individual, social, and economic differences, and not so entirely in terms of subjects."²

1. Wm. M. Proctor, op. cit., p. 7.

2. Arthur F. Payne, op. cit., p. 397.

This emphasis on the development of the capacities and abilities of the individual and the application of psychological measurements for purposes of analysis opened up a new era in guidance. This change in the guidance movement is clearly indicated in the second aim of this decade.

2. The second aim of the guidance movement was to provide an all-round type of guidance which would develop the innate capacities, interest, and abilities of the individual in such a way as to produce a socially efficient, progressive and desirable member of society. It may be illustrated by the following quotation from Inglis:

"The first principle of education or vocational guidance or any other kind of guidance is to learn the pupil and find out what are his interests and his potential abilities; to find out what he knows and what he is capable of doing, and where he is heading for. Then we can start in to develop him.....

In the second place, after we have learned the pupil to some extent as a changing element, our next job is to try to develop in that child some sort of ability to do something;.... We must develop him as far as possible, to find out his abilities, and learn something of his capacities, in order that we may have some intelligent basis for judging what his possibilities are."¹

Another writer of this period expressed herself in a

1. Alexander Inglis, "Vocational Guidance in Secondary Education", (New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1918)

slightly different manner but the aim of general guidance is the same as above. She wrote:

"The outstanding aim of counseling, in my judgment, is to help the child find himself, in school, vocationally, and as a citizen. Two other important aims are:

1. To establish right attitudes and habits of citizenship.
2. To help the child to become efficient to the highest degree possible."¹

Another statement of the aims of this general type of guidance was given by Proctor in the following two statements of guidance objectives which indicate the overlapping of various kinds of guidance resulting in the general all-around aim of the guidance movement.

"The first objective - the discovery and training of capacities in such a way as to add to the sum total of cultural, economic and social values - involves educational and vocational guidance.

The second objective - to create character and inspire to effort - involves social, aesthetic, and moral guidance."²

Thus for the decade of 1920-1930 the aims of the guidance movement may be treated under two headings, voca-

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., pp. 108-109.

2. William M. Proctor, op. cit., p. 17.

tional and all-around or general guidance. The vocational aim emphasized providing guidance in the choice of an occupation, preparation for entering into, placement and follow-up for each student. The general aim was to provide individual and group guidance to prepare students to live a satisfactory, efficient and successful life in so far as possible for each individual.

Methods of Procedure

A large number of methods of procedure were found to be used by schools of this period, 1920-1930, for the purpose of vocational guidance. Since these methods are so varied and numerous only a few typical of those used in the high schools for the vocational guidance of high school students are listed below.

1. Interviews by trained counselors.
2. Special classes in vocations and occupations.
3. Clubs, speakers, assemblies.
4. Intelligence and special aptitude tests.
5. Visits to local commercial and industrial plants.
6. Placement, adjustment, follow-up.

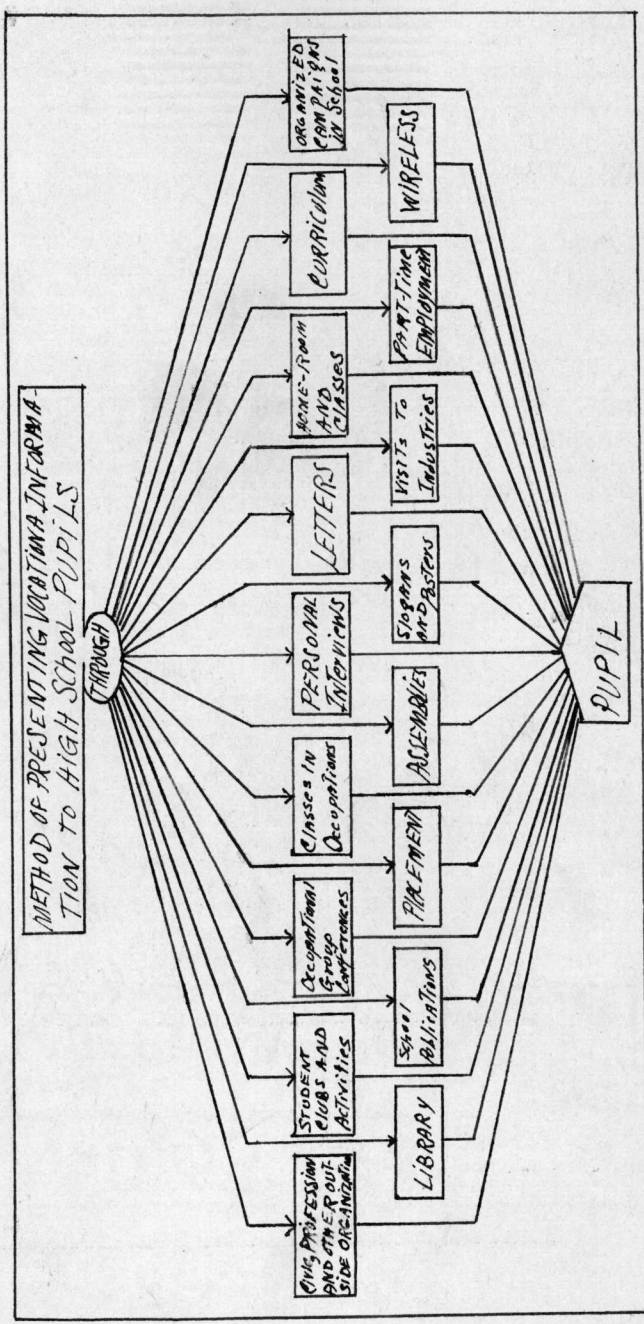
These typical methods may best be explained by giving a few examples of vocational guidance programs in public high schools. For example, a method used for providing vocational contacts in the South Philadelphia High School, which is a girls' high school was as follows:

"Vocational contacts are made through the vocational counselor. Once a week she secures an outside speaker to talk to the freshman group on the advantages and disadvantages of her (or his) own particular field of work; especially, too, the preparatory training and qualities essential to service, happiness, and success in it. This is supplemented by classroom work in vocational civics in which many different vocations are investigated and discussed.

In the sophomore and junior years vocational guidance gives way to educational guidance except for misfits; for problem children; and for those who, for various reasons, are leaving school. These cases are dealt with, individually, by the counselors.

In the senior year, we try again to make vocational contacts, and again, under the direction of the vocational counselor. At least half a dozen of the following occupations are presented, each by a successful specialist from outside; Advertising, Commercial Art, Dental Hygiene, Library Work, Newspaper Reporting, Nursing, Pharmacy, Secretarial Work. In addition some of the higher schools, including technical schools, in Philadelphia and vicinity,¹ are asked to present their opportunities."

Another method to assist vocational guidance counselors reported by E. E. Spanabel, Counselor at the Fifth Avenue High School, Pittsburgh, is illustrated by the chart on the following page.



1. F. J. Allen, [E. B. Spanabel, "Methods of Presenting Vocational Information to High School Pupils"], Practice in Vocational Guidance, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1927) p. 53.

The plan of the California Polytechnic School for vocational guidance as reported by Nicholas Ricciardi is another excellent example of typical methods used in the larger city schools of this decade.

"The entire student body is divided into groups and each group is assigned to a vocational counselor. Every student reports daily to the vocational counselor, who keeps daily record of attendance. Every student understands that he can go to his counselor with any problem at any time. If, for instance, a student is in some difficulty in the machine shop, in dairying, in chemistry, or is confronted with any problem whatsoever, he will talk over his troubles with his counselor. The counselor will go into the matter as thoroughly as possible with the student and then discuss the case with the instructor concerned. After a conference with the instructor the counselor may effect an adjustment. If, however, he cannot make a satisfactory adjustment with the full information he now has he will take up the case with the vice-president, who is the chief counselor. The vice-president will discuss the case with the president whenever necessary. A final settlement may involve the following:

1. Clearing up any misunderstanding between the student and the instructor and establishing right personal relationships between them.
2. Changing the schedule in terms of the student's most pronounced vocational aptitudes and vocational objective.
3. Recommending to the parent that the student be taken out of school on account of his inability to profit by the training the school can give him.

Whenever possible a definite recommendation is made indicating what the parent

would best do. No final recommendation is made or final action taken without giving the student a mental test. The vocational guidance program includes provision for a mental test for every student. These mental tests are given by the chief vocational counselor and the information regarding each counselor's group is tabulated and given to each counselor as an aid in counseling.

The procedure connected with the student rating system which assures every student continuous and organized vocational guidance and makes possible the adjustments mentioned, is as following:

1. Every instructor reports daily the absences for each period to the vocational counselors concerned.
2. The vocational counselors make summary reports in turn to the vice-president, who is the chief vocational counselor.
3. Every instructor reports bi-weekly, or oftener if necessary, to the vocational counselors concerning the students who are not making satisfactory progress.
4. The vocational counselors meet bi-weekly in conference with the president and vice-president to discuss the cases of students who have been reported by the instructors as making unsatisfactory progress.
5. A progress report giving the student's ratings in effort, accomplishment, and character qualities, is mailed to the parent or guardian every six weeks.
6. Every student is given an opportunity to discuss his ratings with his counselor in order that he may know how to proceed to improve his work.

In addition to these ratings in terms of effort and accomplishment, the student is also rated in terms of what may be considered fundamental character qualities. The rating in each character quality is in terms of measurements defined for all teachers so that each measurement means the same to each instructor and to each student."¹

The methods of procedure for Vocational Guidance in a Rural High School as reported by Mrs. Ella M. Barkley serves as an example for the smaller high schools of this period.

"From the very first day on through the whole year, by means of talks, travel trips, letters, and class work, information is provided about different occupations and different industries. Every year experts of one sort and another are invited to school to tell the student body about some field of labor in the world's work. No matter what subject is taken, somewhere in the course that subject is studied as a vocation. For example, in manual training the boys learn what would be necessary if it were taken as a major, and then what would be necessary after graduation in order to be so proficient as to become a teacher in manual training. Hand in hand with such information there are studied the present demand and supply for such work, together with the advantages by way of salary, hours of actual work, and of preparation for work, social standing of such workers, and opportunities for advancement and leadership, as well as the disadvantages, such as dangers to health, expenses in keeping oneself equipped for work, unpleasant living conditions because of the vocation, and other possible drawbacks.

The school affords actual training in some directions. The girls who

desire to become librarians are allowed to do considerable work in the library and to study the vocation itself. One of the boys who likes chemistry is acting as laboratory assistant. Those who think they might follow journalism have the management of the school paper. Some students get credit for the work, some receive cash for their service and others do it voluntarily, the return depending upon the amount of time devoted to the task as well as the difficulty of the task itself.

The students are not allowed to forget that they are the future adult members of society with the welfare of their community in their hands. They are urged from the first to choose some vocation as theirs, to learn all they can about it, to study how it could be improved and how it may affect their own lives. They are asked to consider the chosen vocation as theirs until they find one more to their liking. Freshmen sometimes change four or five times before holidays. At stated times each one is asked to tell about his vocation and give reasons why he likes it. He is given a teacher counselor to whom he goes frequently for talks about his vocation.

On the first day of school each fall, as well as several times during the year, each member is given a psychological test by the principal who is an experienced experimentalist in psychology. These tests are carefully evaluated in connection with the previous school records, the health chart, the individual personality, and the home conditions of each pupil. In addition, information is obtained both directly and indirectly as to points similar to the following:

What would you like to do for your life work?

What regular work do you do at home?
 What games do you like?
 What studies are difficult for you?
 Which are easy?
 What do you do in your leisure time?
 Do you expect to graduate from high school?
 Do you expect to go to college?
 What kind of books do you read?
 What magazines do you read?

From all these sources the teachers' acquaintance with each pupil is considerable, especially when the long tenure of the principal makes possible an intimacy with the character of the home from which each pupil comes. By the time a pupil reaches the senior class, if he has not decided what his life vocation is to be, definite guidance is given by the principal as to what line of work should be taken up. It is explained at the time that the advice is based upon the characteristics of the senior in question as revealed by the previously mentioned sources."¹

The examples given above of the methods of procedure for vocational guidance in high schools were typical of this stage in the growth of the guidance movement. As may be noted in these procedures there was considerable variation in the methods used. The rural high school did not have such a comprehensive program as the large city high school but the aim to provide vocational guidance for every student was just the same. The methods generally used in both large and small high schools involved some or all of the following procedures; counseling and interviewing; special classes in vocations; and placement.

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., 165-166.

Methods of procedure for achieving the second aim of the guidance movement in this period were quite as varied as those methods used in vocational guidance. Educational guidance methods were not clearly distinguished in many schools from the methods of vocational guidance. This may be illustrated by the following quotation from Cubberley on methods used in guidance:

"Through counsel, try-out, courses, a study of ability and aptitudes, and giving of educational and vocational information, our better schools today try to guide the pupil toward that line of work for which he is likely to be most useful and happiest."¹

However, as the idea of educational or general guidance developed certain methods became more or less connected with this phase of the movement. For example, the use of mental tests and psychological measurements became a most important procedure of educational guidance. This was indicated in the writings of Proctor in 1923:

"Experimentation with psychological tests has now reached a stage where we can begin to hope that this wasteful trial and error method of procedure is to be discarded for a more scientific plan of educational guidance."²

1. E. P. Cubberley, Introduction to the Study of Education, (San Francisco: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1925), p. 310.

2. W. M. Proctor, The Use of Psychological Tests in the Educational and Vocational Guidance of High School Pupils, (Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1923), p. 29.

In 1925 Koos reported that "testing for general intelligence for ability in subjects, and in 'aptitudes'," were being used increasingly in connection with educational and vocational guidance with prognostic intent.¹ In 1924 Baker wrote the following lines indicating the implications for the guidance of pupils:

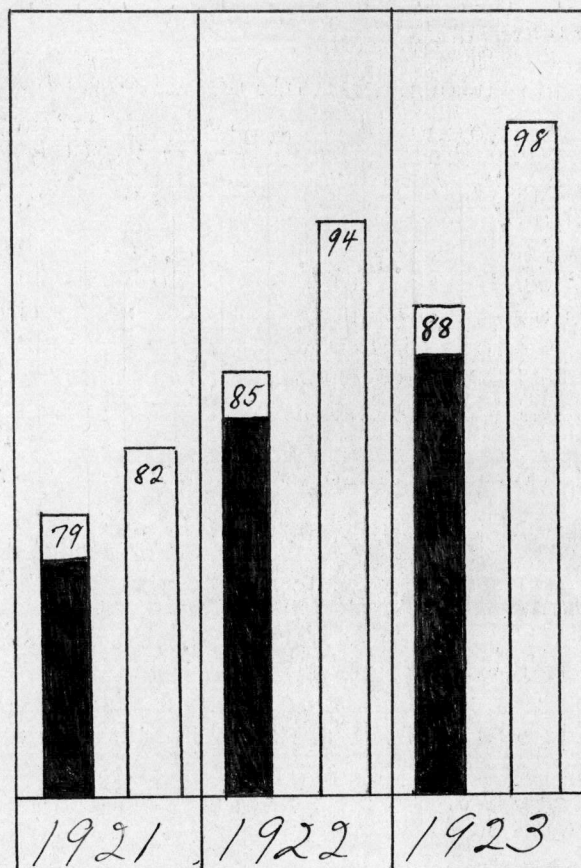
"Mental measurement has an important message for guidance in that it is pointing the way to the classification of pupils for instructional purposes upon a more efficient basis. It selects pupils who are potentially dull and prescribes a type of curriculum which leads them toward life activities for which they are best fitted. Mental measurement selects the bright pupil, suggests his program, and attempts to conserve his valuable talent for the highest types of production."²

Another important development in the methods of educational guidance was counseling. Edgerton and Herr reported the comparative growth of counseling and placement work from 1921-1923 in the following graph.

1. L. V. Koos, op. cit., pp. 43-44.

2. Harry J. Baker, "Objective Measurements in Educational and Vocational Guidance", Twenty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1924, p. 169.

Graph showing three years of the comparative growth of school counseling (black) and placement work in all of the 143 schools systems where both activities exist.¹



1. A. H. Edgerton, and L. A. Herr, "Present Status of Guidance Activities", Twenty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1924, p. 101

Simultaneously with the rapid growth of counselling in the schools, the duties of counselors in relation to guidance were formulated. Samples of these duties will serve to illustrate in more detail methods used by counselors in guidance. Anne S. Davis gives the following list of duties for high school advisers:

1. In elementary schools tributary to the given high schools, to put before the eighth-grade pupils information concerning the different courses in the high schools, to assist in a wise choice of school and course.

2. To confer with maladjusted pupils in the high school...at the end of each five-week period.

3. To investigate the cases of pupils who leave during the term, with a view to inducing them to stay if advisable, and to be responsible for the issuance of school records prerequisite to employment certificates for pupils under sixteen who must work.

6. To study systematically the abilities and qualifications of individual students. To interview all pupils above the second year of the four-year course, and every student in the final semester of the two-year course. To induce the latter in so far as advisable to continue in the four-year course.

8. To consult with students expecting to enter colleges as to entrance requirements, cost, and vocational opportunities. To provide for students

a source of information along these lines."¹

In Detroit the duties of those charged with guidance were as follows:

"1. Providing initial interviews and conferences, especially for classifying pupils and for encouraging those who are entering the school to think more seriously of their educational advantages and occupational possibilities. It is attempted to have all boys and girls interviewed regarding these problems, either individually or in small groups, or both, during the early part of the first year.

2. Following-up and helping to adjust pupils who did not succeed in making tentative plans during their first year or years. Pupils are encouraged to consult with their school counsellors or advisers whenever they have any general or specific questions pertaining to the election of, or preparation for, life occupations.

3. Arranging group meetings to hear talks by those who are especially qualified to speak and to answer questions about their chosen occupations. Conferences often are made optional for pupils who, having made tentative decisions, can benefit by talks from unbiased men and women who have succeeded in their callings.

4. Providing occupational studies in separate classes and by assisting teachers of English, social science, physical science, health education, practical arts, vocational subjects, etc., for imparting related occupational information which involve them. (This usually results in making courses of study that

1. Anne S. Davis, "Guidance in Chicago", Twenty-Third Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, 1924, pp. 70-71.

will respect individual needs and capacities.) These occupational studies, which have become reorganized parts of the courses of study in several subjects, include such considerations as importance of work, constancy of demand for employment, working conditions, qualifications and training needed, possible rewards and advancement, etc., in order to help pupils who continue their school work to select programs of training and courses in higher education more wisely, and to help those who find it necessary to leave school with a minimal amount of education to choose and plan their procedure more thoughtfully.

5. Co-operating with teachers in keeping cumulative records of each pupil's performance both inside and outside (where possible) of school. Counsellors and other school representatives are interested in the results of tests of general intelligence as a basis for general classification, but they also recognize the importance of interpreting these records of a general measure as only one of the many factors resulting from testing pupils' abilities and interests in various ways through school and outside performance.

6. Co-operating with the department which issues working permits to children who are leaving full-time school, but are required by law to attend continuation classes for eight hours a week. It is attempted to interview each applicant at the school before a formal request for this permit is made at the central office of the Attendance Department where it is issued.

7. Co-operating with all other school and outside agencies which interview parents and children, investigate home and working conditions, and in any way pass upon the advisability or necessity for individual children to leave any particular school or to be transferred from one school to another. Every effort is made to solicit

the co-operation of parents and others concerned in helping children select suitable courses of study or training programs in preparation for their occupational interests or chosen plans.

8. Co-operating with the placement officers, co-ordinators, and others that advise, place, and adjust boys and girls who are qualified for part-time work, who desire positions upon leaving schools, or who wish to transfer to other employment. Each pupil who has decided to leave school benefits to some extent by the supervision of his employment contacts and training adjustments, and his employer unquestionably profits either directly or indirectly by this clearing-house for information that is available and needed."¹

In addition to the methods of guidance indicated in the duties of guidance workers given above there were several other methods used for achieving other parts of the general guidance aim. For instance one method reported by Cubberley for civic guidance was as follows:

"Many schools, especially junior and senior high schools, have recently introduced some form of pupil controls as a means of civic training, such as the school council, the school congress, and even a form of pupil government."²

The method for civic guidance used in Lincoln, Nebraska Schools involved the organization of a "Civic League" under the supervision of the schools and the Chamber of

1. A. H. Edgerton, "Guidance in Detroit", Twenty-Third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, pp. 74-75.

2. E. P. Cubberley, Introduction to the Study of Education, (San Francisco: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1925) p. 310.

Commerce. Towne wrote that these "Junior Citizens" are "practicing citizenship in their own group--care of the building and grounds, character building, school, home and community activities."¹

New courses and old ones taught with emphasis on the social and civic aspects of their subject matter were reported by Proctor to have increased guidance value.² Pupil participation in school government, student clubs and societies, school publications and citizenship awards were used as methods for achieving desirable civic attitudes in high school students.

Moral guidance as part of the general guidance scheme was presented to high schools in many different ways. Some of the methods for teaching moral guidance in California high schools are listed by Proctor in the table on the following page.

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 113.

2. William M. Proctor, Educational and Vocational Guidance (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1925), pp. 160-167.

**LECTURES, ASSEMBLIES, AND ORGANIZED CLASSES
AS MEANS OF TEACHING IN CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOLS¹**

Morals taught through the mediums of:	Times mentioned by principals
1. Periodic lectures on miscellaneous moral topics:	
(a) By teachers in their regular classes.....	18
(b) By principals or deans.....	54
(c) By physical directors.....	8
(d) By outside speakers.....	43
2. Organized classes in morals using prescribed text.....	13
3. Occasional lectures on sex hygiene and morals:	
(a) By principal or deans.....	25
(b) By physical directors.....	16
(c) By physician or nurse.....	36
(d) By Y.M.C.A. or Y.W.C.A. secretaries.....	3
4. Sex hygiene or morals taught in con- nection with regular classes:	
(a) By physical education teachers.....	45
(b) By biology or hygiene teachers.....	51
(c) By teachers of other sciences.....	21

The methods indicated in this table were similar to those in use in other high schools. The emphasis was not to teach morals separately for itself but incidentally with other subjects in a more natural manner.

Guidance in health came mainly through the general science courses according to a study made by the Department of Superintendence.² This method was merely incidental

1. W. M. Proctor, "Moral Guidance", Report of the Committee of Fifteen, California Teachers' Association, Table III b, p. 118

2. Department of Superintendence, Sixth Yearbook, 1928, The Development of the High School Curriculum, pp. 457-485.

teaching of health. Newer methods included courses in sex hygiene and physical education; general physical examinations by school physicians; dental inspection and diagnosis by school dentists.¹

In general the methods of guidance were much improved. The emphasis of vocational guidance was no longer on finding a boy for a job, placing him in it and then forgetting him entirely. As reported in the Sixth Yearbook vocational guidance is "guidance for training and not guidance for a job".² Important methods used in this decade for vocational guidance were: analysis of the individual, use of personnel records, testing, interviewing, and the giving of special courses for the study of and training in vocations.

Educational guidance expanded its scope and methods to such an extent that by the end of the decade it was practically an all-round kind of guidance touching on many phases of adolescent life. Some of the methods were used in a large number of schools while others whose guidance programs were not so comprehensive made use of only a few of the methods developed in this decade. The principal methods used in educational guidance programs were: counselling, interviewing, case records, testing, exploratory courses, and student activities.

1. W. M. Proctor, Educational and Vocational Guidance, (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1925), pp. 175-195.

2. Department of Superintendence, Sixth Yearbook, "Differentiation of Curriculums for Pupils of Different Levels of Ability", p. 225.

Results and Tendencies

Near the close of the decade in 1929 the results of the guidance movement may be considered under three headings, (1) the changed concept of vocational guidance, (2) the changed concept of educational guidance, and (3) the new concept of guidance.

1. The results of this decade are illustrated in the changes in the concept of vocational guidance and may best be noted by the following quotations from leaders in the guidance movement.

(1924)

"Guidance is interpreted to include both educational and vocational guidance."¹

"One important phase of vocational guidance is educational guidance. This included not only the assisting of pupils in the choice of course, but also the more fundamental problem of classification and adaptation of the curriculum to the needs of the individual pupil."²

(1925)

"Vocational guidance embraces all those school activities specifically designed to assist individual pupils in learning about, choosing, preparing for, entering upon, and making progress in occupations."³

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 63.

2. H. H. Bixler, "Guidance in the Atlanta Schools", Twenty-third Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education (1924), p. 59.

3. W. M. Proctor, op. cit., p. 243.

(1927)

We shall find that the question of vocational guidance and all sorts of guidance is really a part of and running in and out of almost every phase of education; because most of the people who are concerned with vocational guidance are recognizing that, as far as the school is concerned, vocational guidance is only a part, no matter how important, of a larger thing which we call guidance which, in addition to vocational guidance, includes moral guidance, social guidance, and educational guidance in the narrow sense of that term.¹

(1928)

An effective guidance program will assist in defining the goal, and well organized courses of instruction will help the pupil toward this goal. In both these connections, the personal equation, as a vital and fundamental factor, must not be overlooked.²

The quotations above may be summarized by saying that the scope and aims of vocational guidance as indicated in these quotations had expanded and grown to such an extent that the name vocational guidance was no longer suitable to represent the newer concept of guidance. The term vocational guidance now meant a comprehensive kind of guidance with some emphasis on the choice of, and successful career in, a vocation.

1. F. J. Allen, Principles and Problems in Vocational Guidance, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1927) p. 109.

2. Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, "The Development of the High School Curriculum" (Washington, D. C.; 1928) p. 28.

2. Towards the end of the decade the educational guidance program was likewise expanding to include the many kinds of guidance previously treated in separate categories. As early as 1923 the Connecticut State Board of Education in Suggestions for a Program in Educational Guidance for Secondary Schools indicated the expansion of educational guidance to include general guidance. This is shown in the following quotation:

Educational guidance....is inclusive of all the work of a secondary school specifically directed toward encouraging the enrollment of pupils, guiding and holding them through their high-school period, assisting them in their personal problems.¹

Other quotations from authors of this decade will serve to illustrate the changes in the concept of educational guidance.

(1925)

As the new work has developed, the educational guidance aspect has been seen to be of far more importance than that of vocational placement, and the problem now has become one of how we can render such an important service to our youth.²

Educational guidance is the conscious arrangement of the stimuli of the school, of the extra-curriculum activities,

1. "Suggestions for a Program in Educational Guidance for Secondary Schools." State Board of Education, Hartford, Conn. p. 3.

2. Wm. M. Proctor. o p. cit. p. VIII, of Introduction by E. P. Cubberley.

and of as many other influences as possible, that will call into action the best of all the inherited powers, utilize the best of the environmental forces, and develop the will in right directions.¹

All education is guidance of some form—civic, moral, health, vocational or all combined.²

Educational guidance was similar to vocational guidance in this decade in that both kinds of guidance expanded their scope and developed a much wider concept. Educational guidance was no longer concerned merely with the selection of courses but with the guidance of all the child's school activities in so far as his capacities, interest, needs and special abilities allowed.

3. A new concept of guidance was evolved between 1920 and 1930. In 1925 Proctors' concept of guidance was that of a coordinating or mediating agency. He wrote,

guidance, personified in teacher or counselor, should act as the "go-between", the "coordinator", the one who knows the child, understands his needs, and thinks of him as a real person. Properly administered, guidance will not only protect the child from becoming a "depersonalized" unit in a highly organized system, but will help him to find himself and to become a real factor in shaping his own destiny.

Guidance, then properly conceived and

1. F. J. Allen. Op. cit. p. 100.

2. Loc. Cit.

administered should mediate between the child and the world of opportunity around him. It should take him by the hand and lead him along those paths of self-realization and social service to which he is best adapted by reason of his mental, moral, social, and physical endowment.¹

In 1927 Allen expressed the newer concept of education in the following words:

The conception of education as guidance is an ennobling one, since it requires its students to try to discover how all forms of knowledge may be used for improving the manifold activities of human life.²

There is,.....a growing realization that guidance means far more than placement or individual advice--that it is a fundamental necessity for all pupils in the educational system and that we cannot make the most of any pupil vocationally unless we have made the most of the pupil educationally.³

Thus by 1930 the concept of guidance had through a process of change gone from the numerous, special kinds of guidance of the previous decade and developed a concept of guidance to include complete guidance of all aspects of an individual's life, socially, morally, physically and educationally.

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1. Wm. M. Proctor, op. cit., p. 16-17.
 2. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 45-6.
 3. Ibid., p. 114.

There were certain new tendencies which appeared in this decade. One was that guidance should play an integral part in the aims and organization of the school. In reference to this Koos and Allen wrote:

Nor should guidance be conceived as it now is too prevalently done, as something, to be attached to the school.¹

It is interesting to note that increasing numbers of teachers and administrators insist that no public school system is complete today unless it makes adequate provision for aiding each boy or girl in selecting a suitable occupation and preparing properly for it.²

A second tendency which appeared during this decade was a demand for the classroom teacher to take up the duties of guidance workers instead of leaving guidance functions to specialists.—Proctor was one of the first to mention this. He wrote in 1925,

The classroom teacher is the key person in any effort to organize a guidance program for any unit of the public school system.³

An indication of the same tendency was found in the following quotation from Allen:

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1. L. V. Koos, op. cit., p. 45.
 2. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 94.
 3. Wm. M. Proctor, op. cit., p. 316.

At present the counselling work is in the hands of a few specialists; if it can be extended to the teacher group its scope by virtue of this reinforcement will be greatly enlarged.

It is not the idea to replace the counselor nor to increase the work of the teacher, but rather, by extending to the teacher the fundamental principles of counseling, to guide her thinking into channels of greatest service to the child.¹

The most successful work is done when the entire teaching force of the high school is united in its enthusiasm for guidance.²

In 1928 this tendency towards "every teacher a counselor" was likewise noted in the Sixth Year Book of the Department of Superintendence as follows:

In closing, it may be said that counseling in an individual school or in a school system should be a cooperative enterprise on the part of counselors, administrators, and teachers.³

The subsequent results of these tendencies will be noted in the development of the guidance movement in the next chapter.

1. F. J. Allen, op. cit., p. 49.

2. Ibid., p. 100.

3. Sixth Year Book of the Department of Superintendence, op. cit., p. 227.

The decade 1920-1930 was, for the guidance movement, one of remarkable achievement. The whole concept of the term guidance underwent revolutionary changes. A comparison of the concept of guidance at the beginning of this decade with the concept at the end would show striking differences. The concept of vocational guidance at the beginning of the decade meant training and guidance towards placement in a job and little else. The newer concept of guidance that evolved by 1930 involved a thorough study of the individual, his interest, capacities and abilities. This was also true of the aims of guidance in this decade. At the start the aims were not perceived as broadly as they were by 1930. Methods of procedure likewise were radically changed after scientific tests and measurement were used as an aid in guidance. An improvement in the personnel responsible for school guidance programs was becoming evident. Guidance had achieved to some extent a part in the organization of nearly every high school in the United States and now played an important part in educational concepts.

CHAPTER VII

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS, 1930-1939

During the decade 1930-1939, youth needed some kind of guidance that would enable them to meet the problems of life just as they did when Frank Parsons had written in 1908. In 1936 a very interesting article called "The Plight of American Youth" revealed a very serious situation among the young people of our nation. For example the writer of the article reported that there were 4,700,000 young people between sixteen and twenty-four "unemployed, not in school, and not seeking work."¹ In 1935 "not more than sixty per cent of the youth of normal high school age" were actually in school.² The implication of these statements for guidance are only too evident to those interested in the welfare of youth. In the same article statistics regarding juvenile delinquency revealed that approximately 200,000 cases

1. M. B. Schnapper, "The Plight of American Youth", School and Society, 43:467.

2. Ibid., p. 468

were handled annually in the courts while an additional 100,000 were treated as "unofficial".¹ Such serious conditions as these figures indicate suggest that there is still much to be desired in the process of preparing youth for efficient and successful living.

The guidance movement by 1930 had achieved the stage when it was no longer considered a "fad or frill" but a necessity in the proceeds of education. This status of guidance was recognized by several writers of this period:

Guidance is coming to be regarded as that inseparable aspect of the educational process that is particularly concerned with helping individuals discover their needs, assess their potentialities, develop their life purposes, formulate plans of action in the service of these purposes, and proceed to their realization.²

Personnel work is not a separate part of education, but rather an aspect of all education.³

While definite data are not at hand showing the present status of the guidance work in our schools, it may be confidently asserted that there

1. Ibid. p. 468

2. A. J. Jones and H. C. Hand, "Guidance and Purposive Living", Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Part I, 1938, p. 25, National Society for the Study of Education.

3. Ruth Strang, New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1932, Role of the Classroom Teacher in Personnel Work, 1932, p. 5.

is practically no city of over 10,000 inhabitants that does not have some form of definite guidance activity. These activities are often not completely organized but they are sufficiently developed to show that the school is conscious of the problem and is really attempting to assist the students in meeting important crises. ¹

With the realization and recognition of guidance as part of the educational process there was aroused much greater interest and activity in the guidance movement.

This period 1930-1939 is especially conspicuous for the variety of new developments in all phases of guidance. New methods, concepts, and techniques will be revealed in the growth of the guidance movement of this period. New schools of thought regarding guidance will be recognized in parts of this chapter when methods of procedure and tendencies are discussed.

Aims, 1930-1939

When writing of a recent period it is particularly difficult to find definite aims, especially when the subject under discussion is constantly shifting and changing. The tendencies found in the decade 1920-1930 were naturally influential in the development of aims in the present

1. Arthur J. Jones, Principles of Guidance, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1934, p. 426.

decade. Probably the best way of presenting an adequate idea of the aims is by giving examples from the writings of the period.

In 1932 Koos and Kefauver developed a unique concept of guidance involving two aims which they called phases.

The aim of the distributive phase was to,

- (1) distribute youth as effectively as possible to educational and vocational opportunities, that is, to subjects (or courses), curricula, extra-curricular activities (which may be thought of as expansions of the curriculum, schools, higher institutions, and vocations.

The aim of the adjustive phase was to,

- (2) help the individual to make the optimal adjustment to educational and vocational situations.¹

In 1932 Crawford stated the functions of guidance "as embracing educational, vocational, social and personal phases", of adjustment.

Just as the purpose of all four adjustments is to secure an integration of the personality of the individual, so must an integration of the four guidance functions be secured among themselves.²

1. L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, Guidance in Secondary Schools, 1932, p. 15.

2. A. B. Crawford; "Educational Personnel Work", Personnel Journal, X, (April 1932), 406-7.

In 1933 Judd wrote that there were two aims or purposes in guidance. The first one being educational guidance which

helps the student to find his way through the intricacies of the elective system or through the complexities of the school or college environment The second type of guidance looks toward the students' future and aims to assist him in choosing a vocation. The purpose of this kind of guidance is to help in finding an occupation which is suited to the student's abilities and also to help in shaping the student's school program so as to prepare for his chosen calling. ¹

In 1934 Allen and Jones wrote the following statements which reveal their concept of the aims of guidance:

....guidance is conceived as self-guidance, a service, and a continuous process, lifelong in extent, and having for its purpose the better adjustment of the individual to his environment. ²

Guidance of all kinds has a common purpose--to assist the individual to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpretations in connection with critical situations in his life.

....the purpose of guidance is positive, not negative and like that of

1. C. H. Judd, "Education", in Recent Social Trends in the United States, Report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends, 1933, Vol. I, p. 358.

2. Richard D. Allen, Organization and Supervision of Guidance in Public Education, 1934, p. 11.

all education, aims to build up the ability to guide one's self.¹

In 1936 Cowley indicated what he believed was the aim of guidance in a definition of personnel work. He wrote,

Personnel work constitutes all activities undertaken or sponsored by an educational institution, aside from curricular instruction, in which the students' personal development is the primary consideration.²

The year 1938 brought two more statements of the aims of guidance, one of which involves group guidance.

The basic purpose of group guidance is somewhat broader, however, than merely supplying background information. Group guidance should portray common student problems and the information necessary to an understanding of them.³

In a democratic social order, a guidance service in public educational institutions is charged with the responsibility for reaching and affecting all individuals in ways to stimulate their best growth rather than being concerned only with the maladjusted or with any favored few.⁴

1. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit. p. 49.

2. W. H. Cowley, "The Nature of Student Personnel Work", Educational Record, Vol. XVII, April, 1936, p. 218.

3. C. Gilbert Wrenn, "Counseling with Students", Thirty-Seventh Yearbook, Guidance in Educational Institutions, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 135.

4. R. D. Allen and M. E. Bennett, "Guidance Through Group Activities", Ibid., p. 145.

From the quotations given above it is evident that there is some difference of opinion among leaders in the field as to just what the aims should be. A brief survey of these various statements suggests that the present aims of guidance are: to achieve the optimum development of the individual's capacities, abilities and potentialities; to develop self-direction, and the ability to meet crises in life and make satisfying adjustments; to choose a vocation suitable to one's abilities and desires, and formulate plans for achieving maximum success in it; and to prevent maladjustments and misfits and encourage the development of well-integrated personalities.

Methods of Procedure

The methods of procedure used in this recent period, 1930-1938, in the guidance movement are much the same as in the past decade,¹ though more refined and improved. One method which is very essential to guidance is that of securing accurate and sufficient information on all students. Techniques listed by Eurich and Wrenn for securing information about students are an example of the emphasis on this method.

1. Tests
 - (a) Intelligence Tests
 - (b) Achievement Tests
 - (c) Personality Tests

1. See Chapter VI. pp. 106-124.

- (d) Tests of Vocational Aptitudes and Skills
- (e) Guidance Tests and Inventories
- 2. Records
- 3. Rating Scales
- 4. Inventories of Information
- 5. Observation
- 6. Autobiographies
- 7. Interviews
- 8. Case Histories ¹

Another list of techniques used in personnel work by Strang for securing pupil information includes, the following; case study, interview, standardized tests, rating, daily schedule, and study of personality by observation. ² The information secured by these techniques was deemed absolutely necessary for a second method used rather extensively, namely, counseling.

Counseling as a method of guidance is considered by many educators to be the most important one in the guidance programs. For example,

The most intimate and vital part of the entire guidance program is counselling. ³

1. Alvin C. Eurich and C. Gilbert Wrenn, "Appraisal of Student Characteristics and Needs", Thirty-seventh Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education, p. 30.

2. Ruth Strang, "Guidance in Personality Development", Ibid., pp. 208-211.

3. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit., p. 274.

Counseling is not only a most important means of regulating curricular opportunities to pupil needs and of facilitating adjustment, but it is an important method also of discovering those very pupil needs that are the focus of the entire school organization.¹

Recently counseling has been considered too expensive and is now being replaced to a large extent by group guidance, homeroom guidance and guidance by the classroom teacher.² The objectives, prevailing forms of organization and other aspects of this method of guidance are explained in detail by Allen and Bennett,³ Allen,⁴ and Allen, Stewart and Schloerb.⁵

Child guidance clinics is another method used in the schools of some large cities. An explanation of the part clinics take in guidance is explained below by Wrightstone:

1. C. Gilbert Wrenn, "Counseling with Students", Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, p. 122.

2. R. D. Allen, op. cit. p. 4-5.

3. R. D. Allen and M. E. Bennett, op. cit., pp. 145-172.

4. R. D. Allen, op. cit., pp. 189-236.

5. R. D. Allen, F. J. Stewart and Lester J. Schloerb, Common Problems in Group Guidance, New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1934.

In several of the larger communities a child guidance clinic has been formed. The personnel of the clinic normally includes a full-or-part-time psychiatrist, a physician who is usually a specialist in mental and nervous maladjustments of children, an educational psychologist, and psychiatric social workers or visiting teachers. Children are referred to the clinic by teachers for examination, diagnosis and prognosis. The clinic personnel recommends treatment and in many cases assists in the actual treatment of the individual pupil.¹

In smaller communities the trained personnel is much smaller and the functions of guidance clinics much more limited than the description given above.²

Guidance through the curriculum is a method of procedure used in many high schools. For example Koos and Kefauver explain one method they found used in many California schools included in their study:

An important means of facilitating guidance in senior and four year high schools administering the constants-with-variable program is the outlining and reproducing as part of the printed program of studies what are referred to as "suggested" curricula, that is curricula outlined to serve specific purposes. By resort to

1. J. Wayne Wrightstone, Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices, New York: Bureau of Publication, Columbia University, 1936, p. 107.

2. loc. cit.

these the school may. . . . secure the values in guidance of specialized curricula, in the multiple-curriculum plan. ¹

Besides the choice of curricular studies mentioned in the foregoing statement as a means of guidance a more recent development is the introduction of courses, designed from the needs of students. Kefauver wrote the following description of this new method for guidance.

The inadequacy of instruction based on the mastery of pre-planned subject matter is becoming generally recognized. Teachers now have greater freedom to develop a program of instruction more closely related to the interests, problems, and needs of students. City and state courses of study are being increasingly used for the suggestions they carry to teachers rather than as outlines of instruction that they must follow. Under this plan of organization, students attack some problem of real concern to them and draw from the subject matter in the various fields in whatever ways may best serve the needs of that problem. ²

The emphasis for guidance through the core curriculum was to provide experiences through pupil activity in the classroom. To achieve this, courses have been broadened

1. L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, op. cit. pp. 65-6.

2. G. N. Kefauver, "Guidance and Instruction", Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, p. 253.

and designed to meet the basic needs of students in everyday living. For example:

These needs are defined cooperatively by students and faculty and provide the basis for the instructional activities. In the core course all students deal with problems common to the group. ¹

The curriculum is organized in terms of tasks to be performed, goals to be reached, rather than in terms of lessons to be learned.

The method of procedure for carrying out the guidance functions usually "involves the assignment of a teacher full time to a group of students".² This teacher acts as adviser and instructor in all the activities of the core curriculum. This teacher receives assistance from other members of the staff in regard to the instruction of special subjects when it is required by the activities of the students.³

This brief discussion of methods used in high schools in attempting to carry out the aims of guidance reveals that there is a great diversity in the scope and functions of the procedures used in this period. The typical procedures mentioned in this chapter are still in a state of growth and experimentation. Each school is endeavoring to find a method that will be adaptable to its organization as well as effective in the guidance of its students.

1. Ibid. p. 255.

2. Ibid. p. 259.

3. loc. cit. Also Henry Harap, The Changing Curriculum, Washington: Joint Committee on Curriculum, 1937.

Results and Tendencies, 1930-1939

The results and tendencies of the short period of eight years dealt with in this chapter may be summarized as follows.

The concept of guidance underwent a considerable number of changes. The most recent concept is in keeping with the new psychology which considers the individual as a whole. This change from the point of view of guidance is evidenced in the need for "whole child guidance", as expressed by Jones and Hand who wrote,

....the life of any individual should be considered as an organic whole, not as a combination of more or less unrelated and often conflicting elements.¹

A slightly different concept of guidance was found in Strang's definition of personnel work:

Broadly speaking, personnel work in schools and colleges comprises all phases of education which are focused on the individual rather than on the group, class, or system.²

The rapidity of the changes in the guidance concept is indicated by these two quotations from Koos and Kefauver in 1932, and Jones in 1934 when compared to the third concept written by Jones and Hand in 1938.

1. Arthur J. Jones and H. C. Hand, "Guidance and Purposive Living", Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, p. 12.

2. Ruth Strang, Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work, p. 3.

Guidance implies advice, and the only compulsion possible in advice is the coercion of judgment by pertinent facts that point the way to proper decision.¹

Guidance is:

to assist the individual to make wise choices, adjustments, and interpretations in connection with critical situations in his life.²

Guidance is coming to be regarded as that inseparable aspect of the educational process that is peculiarly concerned with helping individuals discover their needs, assess their potentialities, develop their life purposes, formulate plans of action in the service of these purposes, and proceed to their realization. The total teaching process involves both guidance and instruction as these terms have commonly been employed in the past, and as inseparable functions.³

The development of a new concept of guidance was only one result of this period and yet a very important one. The organization and supervision of guidance activities by 1939, was much improved. Many city systems had established departments of educational and psychological research, child guidance clinics, and had added trained personnel workers to their staffs. Smaller high schools made use of

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1. L. V. Kocs and G. N. Kefauver, op. cit., p. 17.
 2. Arthur J. Jones, op. cit., p. 49.
 3. A. J. Jones and H. C. Hand, op. cit., pp. 24-5.

the teacher-counselor idea and were usually under the direction of the principals.

New tendencies which developed during this period of the guidance movement may be summarized briefly as follows:

(a) An interest in the behavior problems, delinquency and emotional problems of students.¹

(b) Personality development and prevention of maladjustment and misfits.²

(c) An interest in guidance of avocational interests and leisure time.³

(d) "Growing emphasis upon the fundamental importance of self-directed activity and upon the function of the teacher as a guide in learning."⁴

In conclusion it may be said that the guidance movement had become more comprehensive in scope, scientific in approach and efficient^{ly} organized in this period of its development than in any period in the history of this movement. More and more effort is being placed on the development of integrated personalities, capable of self direction towards achieving goals set up by the individual. The individual is no longer told

1. J. Wayne Wrightstone, op. cit., pp. 104-109.

2. Ruth Strang, "Guidance in Personality Development", op. cit., pp. 197-227.

3. L. V. Koos and G. N. Kefauver, op. cit., also R. D. Allen and M. E. Bennett, "Guidance Through Group Activities", op. cit., p. 163.

4. Arthur J. Jones and H. C. Hand, "Guidance and Purposive Living", op. cit. p. 4.

or advised, but actually participates in the guidance procedures with his teacher or counselor on a basis of mutual interest. At present there is much stress laid on this active participation of the student in directing his own development and adjustment as the following quotations from Cox and Duff, and Lee indicate:

...we shall place the emphasis on active adaptation--the pupil must make his own adjustments, must create a personality for himself.¹

Choice is implicit in guidance, and the choice should be made not by the guide but by the one who is being guided.²

Another tendency that seems prevalent in the late thirties is the emphasis on "every teacher a counselor" rather than on a few highly trained specialist in charge of three to five hundred students. The expense and inefficiency of the latter type of guidance organization was criticized by many with the result that there is much interest and effort being placed on the role of the classroom teacher in guidance, since the latter is in ^{more} direct contact with students every day than anyone else within the school.

Group guidance is another recent trend in the guidance movement. Many guidance workers feel that by participating in a group and meeting common problems confronting them

1. W. L. Cox and J. C. Duff, Guidance by the Classroom Teacher, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1938. p. 18.

2. Edwin A. Lee, "Individual Guidance", Proceedings of the National Educational Association, 1938, p. 62.

as a whole body is an effective way of developing the capacity to make social adjustments individually, under other conditions and circumstances.

Guidance as it is now generally considered is a part of, and a dynamic factor in the functions of education. Recognition of its importance as a factor in education came only after those actively engaged in education began to realize how futile it was to expect all students to attempt to learn the same kinds of knowledge in the same way, follow certain standardized modes of behavior, and go through other conventional rituals demanded by an unsympathetic and ignorant adult society. Many of these changes were brought about in the last few decades by the development of guidance as part of the process of education.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS

The development of the guidance movement in public high schools from its early beginnings in the middle of the nineteenth century to the present time has been traced in this thesis. From the earliest attempts at some type of guidance in the high schools to the present the underlying idea has been to develop a kind of guidance that would assist the individual in his relations to an ever changing society.

In the early period of the development of guidance it was found that the schools were attempting to fulfill a part of the guidance functions formerly carried on by the home. Thus the aims of guidance in the period 1850-1890 were found to be on the development of morality and training in citizenship. The methods used such as memorizing moral mottoes and reading books on morals and conduct, for accomplishing these aims were rather ineffective and indefinite. The concept of guidance in the high schools in this early period was in a very elementary stage of develop-

ment and its purposes were not fully realized. The teachers and principals who were attempting to guide the students towards morality and good citizenship did it incidentally in the regular school functions rather than as a separate and recognized activity.

Gradually the schools began to recognize its guidance functions and a real concept of guidance was evolved. This new guidance concept which appeared in the last decade of the nineteenth century aimed at the preparation of high school students for employment in industry. This transition of the guidance movement from guidance in morals, manners and conduct to a more practical concept was the result of sociological and economic changes in the United States. It was during this period 1890-1900, that the full impact of the Industrial Revolution was felt in American life.

The influence of the Industrial Revolution on home life was very great. The home was no longer the center of activity where each member of the family had a duty to perform and opportunity to learn a trade. The courses in the school curriculum offered few opportunities for preparing for a life career and were entirely unsuited to the demands of the industrial era. In the eighties and nineties the schools began to respond to the demand for more practical courses by adding commercial courses, industrial training courses and agricultural courses. It was believed that with

these additional offerings all the problems of training young people for becoming independent and successful workers in industry would be solved and the guidance function of the schools discharged.

In this same decade 1890-1900, the influence of the child study movement was beginning to have some effect on the schools. Information on the nature of the child, his desires, needs and conduct as revealed in studies made among school children had a very important effect on the development of guidance. Educators began to see that the child needed guidance and direction to meet the problems he would face in post-school life, in particular in the securing of a job in commerce, industry, or agriculture.

By the turn of the century there was much activity among those interested in promoting the welfare of young people in high schools throughout the United States. This activity was centered in a dissatisfaction with the schools. Many felt that the schools were failing to meet the needs of the students. This activity was reflected in the beginnings of the vocational guidance movement. Frank Parsons is the recognized leader of this movement which in a very few years became a part of the Boston school system. Parsons recognized the needs of youth for assistance in preparing for and placement in jobs. He also realized that the guidance of youth was a function that was

being neglected by both home and school. His attempts to guide young people brought him much publicity and soon the Boston School Committee asked him to outline a plan for vocational guidance in the public schools. The real effect of his work was not fully felt until the next decade.

Within the high schools from 1900-1910 the guidance activities were not much different from those of the preceding decade. The schools attempt at guidance was mainly by offering opportunities for learning a trade or preparing for an occupation. The schools seemed little concerned with the fact that many students having received inadequate preparation from the schools, selected unsuitable occupations, entered "blind alley" jobs and became misfits in society within a few years after they left school.

Part of the concept of guidance from 1900-1910, was that it was to prepare students for assuming the duties and privileges of citizenship. Emphasis was placed on this part of the guidance program for a number of reasons. One reason for this emphasis was that the majority of citizens in the United States at that time were of foreign birth. This fact alone made it imperative that something be done to secure the perpetuation of democratic ideals. It was felt that since the schools had direct contact with a large number of students that would become citizens in the near future the logical place to direct the development of citizenship

would be in the schools. Thus the schools began using various methods to create a satisfactory type of citizen. This involved not only the inculcation of ideals through the study of civics and the social studies but also a concern for the health of the students. Medical inspection, physical education and hygiene courses were introduced to carry out this aim of the guidance program in the schools. Thus the concept of guidance as it had developed by 1910 was concerned with assisting students to prepare for a vocation and in assisting students to become useful, healthful and efficient citizens.

The decade 1910-1920 was a particularly important one in the development of guidance for it was in this period that guidance became organized and accepted generally as part of the function of education. The tendency apparent in the previous decade to emphasize vocational guidance now became very strong. Boston was the first to have an organized department for this purpose within the schools, but other large cities soon developed similar organizations to meet the needs of their students^{for} vocational guidance. Some of the methods and techniques developed to carry out the aims of vocational guidance were: the collection of data, use of record cards, the use of advisers and counselors, and the addition to the curriculum of courses in vocational information. The aim of vocational guidance now included

not only preparation for a job and placement but also careful selection of a vocation based on the capacities, abilities and interests of the student.

Another type of guidance arose in the decade 1910-1920 called educational guidance. This was a more general kind of guidance needed by high school students at that time to help them select subjects and courses from the ever increasing number of electives offered in the curriculum. Secondary education was undergoing a great many changes in this period and the courses of study and general methods of education were being improved. Mental testing as part of guidance began to be used for classifying and distributing students according to their ability. The emphasis on the wide differences found among students came soon after tests and measurements were used on a wide scale.

The introduction of extra-curricular activities and student government into the high schools after the World War were methods used for guidance in civic responsibilities. It was believed that the best way to inculcate American ideals of citizenship was through student activities in which actual experience in civic duties and responsibilities were provided.

As has been indicated in the preceding paragraphs the concept of guidance from 1910-1920 was changed from that of the preceding decade and broadened to include not only

vocational guidance but also educational and civic guidance. Each of these developments was due to certain sociological changes which had produced new student needs. Vocational guidance was the best organized and the most predominating element in the guidance movement at this time. Educational guidance arose out of a need for aid in choosing from the large number of electives offered in the high schools. Guidance for citizenship was stimulated and given much emphasis during and after the war period.

From these three special aims of guidance there arose in the twenties a better organized and more comprehensive concept of guidance. Vocational guidance was still an important factor but the emphasis rather than being on immediate training and placement was now on careful preparation and selection of courses that would be of practical use in obtaining employment suitable to the individual after he had finished his education. This expansion of vocational guidance was similar to the expansion of educational guidance. Educational guidance as originally conceived was very limited in scope but now in the decade 1920-30 the concept grew to mean a much more general kind of guidance. By the end of the decade the majority of high schools throughout the United States had guidance of some type within the school organization. Improved methods and techniques of counseling, advising, interviewing, collecting data, best-

ing and measuring were commonly used to some extent in nearly all guidance programs. The psychology of the individual was the subject of much study and research in guidance departments of large cities. There were strong efforts being made to fit the school to the child instead of forcing the child to fit the school.

The concept of guidance by 1930 included in its scope many kinds of guidance such as health, social, educational, vocational and civic guidance. The schools felt a direct concern and interest for each student in his adjustment to his environment. Thus the purpose of guidance at this time was to help the individual develop all of his capacities, interests and talents to the highest extent and to enable him to live as happily and successfully as he was capable of doing.

The development of guidance in the most recent period discussed, 1930-1939, has centered around a concept of "whole child" guidance. There was no longer emphasis on some particular phase or aspect of the individual while neglecting other parts of the whole personality. The methods and procedures of this period are much more scientific and adaptable to the requirements of effective guidance than those in any previous period. Most recent trends in the guidance movement indicate a tendency towards interest in the development of personality and concern for the emotional life

of the individual. Another tendency emphasizing the importance of the classroom teacher as a factor in guidance is away from the earlier emphasis on highly trained specialists who seldom came in direct contact with students except when they were in trouble or difficulty.

In conclusion, the findings of this study as a whole indicate that the growth of the guidance movement and its subsequent development grew out of the needs of youth for assistance in adjusting himself to the demands of an ever changing society.

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